The Nation.

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The Week.

NOT since Grant's renomination for a second term has any national party entered a convention so united in support of one candidate as the Democratic party will be when it assembles at St. Louis on June 5. If there be an omen of victory in the much-sought-after act of "presenting a solid front to the enemy," the Democrats will have the benefit of it this year. Not only are they unanimously in favor of their candidate, but they have also gone on the record with equal unanimity in favor of the principles which he represents. Not a single State convention has thus far expressed dissent from his tariff message, and nearly every one has emphatically approved it, thus making it the leading issue in the campaign. The opening utterance of the Ohio Democratic platform gives an inkling of the amount of latent enthusiasm that is likely to be found in the President's personality this year: "We endorse, without qualification, the Administration of President Cleveland. His honesty, integrity, fidelity to principle, and manly courage have endeared him to the American people, and the interests of the country demand his renomination and election." When that was read to the Convention they broke into a perfect tumult of cheers. Similar scenes have been witnessed in every other State convention which has been held. They bear witness, as does the unbroken line of Cleveland delegates, to the fact that the Democratic party has found a leader and a principle, and has something definite to fight for.

On the Republican side the forecast cannot be so clearly made. The most obvious fact in the situation there is, that Mr. Blaine will enter the Chicago Convention, which meets on June 19, with a large proportion of the delegates in favor of his nomination in preference to that of any other candidate. It is not necessary to go into the question of how these delegates have been secured. Many of them possibly owe their selection to shrewd political manœuvring, but it is undoubtedly true that he is the spontaneous first choice of the overwhelming majority of the rank and file of his party. This is especially true of the Eastern and Middle States. In all the New England States, delegates have been chosen who, whatever may be their avowed preferences, are at heart in favor of him. Of the New Jersey delegation there is little doubt that the same thing is true. The New York delegation is nominally uninstructed, but it is understood to have a majority in favor of Mr. Blaine, and to be in the control of Tom Platt, who declares his conviction that Blaine is the inevitable candidate. The delegations from the Western States are divided up among a large number of favorite sons, but, with the exception of the Illinois instruction for Judge Gresham, none of them are under formal directions which will in any way prevent them from giving their votes to Mr. Blaine. It is known that many of these delegates are at heart Blaine men, and are only restrained from supporting his renomination by fears of its inexpediency. As for the Southern delegations, while Senator Sherman has been able to retain enough of his former power in the South to secure the nominal support of many of them, they will go to the Convention a more or less open band of political mercenaries, ready to give their support to the highest bidder. If Mr. Blaine is to be defeated, the Western delegations will have to perform the work.

It seems to be conceded on all hands that the Gresham boom is making steady and rapid progress in the West, and the effects of it are visibly felt in Washington, and even in this city. The open avowal in favor of it which Judge Kelley has given, is significant as showing that the high-tariff Republicans are willing to take some other man than Blaine. The struggle in the National Convention is very likely to be between Blaine and Gresham, and for that reason the *aut Blaine aut nullus* cohort are sharpening their knives to the keenest edge for the Judge. If they are not able to nominate Blaine, they will bend all their strength to accomplish the defeat of Gresham. They have strength enough at present, apparently, to do that, but there are signs of a spirit of wrath in the party which may develop sufficiently by the time the Convention meets to make it less tolerant than it is now of the Blaine manœuvring.

Gen. Black, now Commissioner of the Pension Bureau, is said to be a candidate for nomination for Vice-President at the Democratic Convention, and a "boom" of some sort has been set on foot for this purpose either by himself or some of his friends. We think the public is entitled to ask for more moderation at Gen. Black's hands in matters of this sort. It is not very long since a bill was pushed through Congress giving him a pension of $100 a month—the highest ever bestowed on anybody—on the express ground that he was a complete "physical wreck, incapable of any effort, helpless in both arms," and that "it was only a question of how long he would live." After he got the pension, however, his condition did not prevent his seeking, and obtaining, and administering, with much politics, the office of Commissioner of Pensions, which he now holds. No man drawing a pension of $1,200 a year as a "physical wreck" ought to hold any salaried public office. If Gen. Black is well enough to hold the office, he ought not to draw the pension; if he is ill enough to draw the pension, he ought not to hold the office. We trust that he is not now going to cap the climax of his absurdity by asking for the Vice-Presidency of the United States. The President ought in some way to discourage Gen. Black. He is evidently too little of a wreck either for his own good or that of the public.

The latest batch of vetoes of private pension bills illustrate afresh the evil tendencies of such legislation. One case is that of Mrs. Sally A. Randall of Norwich, Conn. Mr. Randall died in 1873, twenty years after their marriage; he had never served in the army. But this was the woman's second marriage; her first husband was Antipas Tabor, who enlisted in the war of 1812 and died in 1831. No claim is made that he received any injury in the army, or that his death was in the slightest degree related to his military service. His wife was born during his time of enlistment, and her first widowhood had no connection with any incident or condition of health traceable to his service. But Mrs. Randall is now seventy-five years old, in poor health and in needy circumstances. The idea occurred to somebody that the Federal Government might be made to assume her support, on the ground that Mr. Tabor, who died nearly sixty years ago had served in the army seventy-five years ago. "Prominent citizens" were readily induced to sign a petition for the application of a small slice of the surplus to this purpose, and "our member" pushed the bill through Congress. Probably everybody who voted for it would have admitted that it was, as the President says, "a bad precedent," but Mrs. Randall appears to be a worthy woman, and it was much easier to assent to giving her a support from the Treasury at Washington than to refuse the pension and tell the truth about the matter, as the President does in this sentence: "All this certainly commends her case to the kindness and benevolence of the citizens mentioned, and the State of Connecticut ought not to allow her to be in needy circumstances."

It is easier to excuse action which seems like charity to a deserving woman than to have patience with the premium placed upon dishonesty by the passage of such bills as the one granting a pension to William H. Hester. This man claims that while he was in the service in 1869 he encountered a sand-storm, and that the sand blew into his eyes to such a degree as to result in nearly if not quite total blindness. It appears that the House Committee which investigated the case conceded that the claim made by this man to the Pension Bureau was largely supported by perjury and forgery, but they tried to saddle the responsibility upon three rogues and scoundrels who undertook to obtain the pension, and to hold the claimant himself innocent of any complicity in the fraud. The evidence, however, leaves no excuse for so charitable a theory. Hester swore that the sand-storm occurred January 15, 1869, and that his eyes were so cut that he was hardly able to see or get about, and was cared for by Edward

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N. Baldwin. But Mr. Baldwin, while admitting that he knew Hester and bunked with him in January, 1869, declares that he never saw any sand-storm and never knew that Hester had bad eyes, or was anything but sound and well at any time, except once when he had eaten too much. Mr. Baldwin was shown an affidavit purporting to be made by him and sustaining Hester's story, which he declared to be false and a forgery. The President declares with pardonable severity that he believes this claim for pension to be "a fraud from beginning to end;" and he adds that "the effrontery with which it has been pushed shows the necessity of a careful examination of these cases."

The debate on the tariff now going on in the House of Representatives is, and ought to be considered, the most interesting we have had since the return to specie payments. It is not often, too, that, as in this case, the subject of a debate in Congress is the very issue on which an approaching Presidential election is to turn. Moreover, the debate has been conducted with great ability on both sides, though we naturally incline to consider the speeches of Mr. Mills, Mr. Wilson, Mr. Fitch, and Mr. Russell much superior to anything produced on the Protectionist side. Would not one expect that under these circumstances the leading New York morning papers would give reports more or less full of the speeches on both sides, or at all events on their own side, respectively? Would it not be good journalism to do so, especially if we take literally all the boasting and romancing about the "function of the newspaper" which one hears from the professors and the editors? There is nothing visionary about this demand either. The London *Times*, as well as other English papers, reports the speeches on both sides, on great occasions, with a fairness which we have never seen reason to question, to the great honor of the journalistic art. But the melancholy truth is, that our public is not permitted to hear anything of what is said in Congress on this most interesting question. It is rare to find in any paper we know of, except the Philadelphia *Ledger*, more than a brief summary of a speech of the member of its own party, or a few lines of burlesque of others. This is literally true of all the speeches thus far delivered in this most important debate, which ought to be doing so much for popular education on the most important question of the day. If it be pleaded that newspapers cannot find room for such reports, the answer is that they would be more important just now than the petty gossip for which abundance of room is always found.

When the Mills bill was reported by the Committee of Ways and Means, a great cry was raised by the producers of pig-iron against the proposed reduction of seventy-two cents per ton on that article. We have before us at the present moment a pamphlet issued by a number of Eastern furnace-owners protesting against this fatal blow at their industry. They show to a dead certainty that pig-iron cannot be produced at a profit east of the Alleghanies if the tariff is reduced to $6 per ton, and that it is only by the most grinding economy that it can be made under the present duty of $6.72 per ton. It is further stated in this pamphlet that a reduction to $6 will check production in the West, since freights by way of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi Rivers are merely nominal, enabling the British manufacturers to pour their products into the interior of the country almost as readily as on the Atlantic seaboard. While we were musing on this disastrous state of things and contemplating the speedy destruction of a great industry, we were surprised to read in the Philadelphia *Press* that the Thomas Iron Company had reduced its prices of pig-metal $2 per ton in advance of any action of Congress. In other words, the voluntary reduction made by the principal producers east of the Alleghanies is $1.28 greater than the proposed reduction in the Mills bill.

The reason for this reduction is stated by the *Press* in the following words:

> "Taking a broad view of the matter, it is believed that these reductions will be of local advantage, as the West and South have for some time been running away with valuable portions of the Eastern iron trade because of their lower prices. As a matter of fact, the dulness has not been so much because of a scarcity of business, but because mills and furnaces could not meet the prices made by their more distant competitors."

What a precious lot of humbugs you are! If this reduction of $2 per ton had been brought about by a tariff bill, you would have rent the air with cries, you would have cut down wages and discharged a lot of workmen, and appealed to heaven to witness the distress that free trade was bringing upon the country; and you would have said that British manufacturers were crushing American industry. But when the same fall in prices is brought about by your effort to undersell the Western and Southern producers, it is all right, nobody is harmed, no workmen are discharged, and American industry continues to be of good cheer.

The decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan that the Local-Option Law of that State is unconstitutional and void because of defective title, is a forcible reminder of the slipshod character of much of our State law-making. The law in question was passed by the Legislature of 1887, and, working in conjunction with the stringent High-Tax Law which Michigan has had for several years, promised to make the State one of the best regulated in the country so far as the liquor traffic is concerned. Nearly half the counties, thirty-five out of eighty-three, had voted against all sales of liquor, so that a large part of the State was virtually enjoying prohibition. The decision undoes all this work until the Legislature meets next year, when in all probability the law will be passed again with a proper title. It is a curious and instructive fact that the two elements of the State's population most rejoiced by the decision are the liquor-dealers and the professional prohibitionists. Both have the same reason, however—that the law was seriously interfering with their business.

For the first time in the history of the country a State is about to elect two United States Senators, each of whom will be given a full six years' term. When the original States first elected Senators, each Legislature chose two men, but the Constitution provided that "immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes," the term of one class expiring in two years, the second in four, and the third in six, so that one-third of the body should be chosen every second year. Thus New York elected Rufus King and Philip Schuyler, but Schuyler fell into the first class, so that his term expired in two years. In like manner, when Colorado came into the Union in 1877, Chaffee dropped into the first class, with only two years to serve, while Teller was allotted to the six years' class. Of course, after the terms for each State have thus been fixed at the outset, each successor to a Senator of any class is chosen for six years. Even if a Legislature meets only once in two years, it can never happen that it will have to choose more than one Senator in the natural course of things (death or resignation excepted), since the term of his colleague will not expire until after the next Legislature has been chosen. Louisiana, however, by the new Constitution adopted in 1879, gave the Legislature a four years' term, and as a result it happens that the body chosen last month must choose not only a Senator for the term beginning in March, 1889, but also one for the term beginning in March, 1891. Mr. Gibson, whose term expires next year, easily secured the caucus nomination for reëlection last week, but there seems likely to be a hard contest over the other seat. The system under which a Legislature chosen in April, 1888, disposes of a Senatorship which does not fall vacant until March, 1891, is not only anomalous, but contrary to the principle of representative institutions, and ought to be changed.

We feel it to be our duty to warn the public against the suggestion made by Col. Elliott F. Shepard, in the columns of his newspaper, that much reading of the *Mail and Express* will impair the value of libraries, if it does not lead to their suppression altogether. Although the Colonel's reproduction of the Scriptures on his editorial page supplies a long-felt public want, it has never been his intention to supersede that volume, or to enter into competition with the Bible Society. But it is his announced purpose to make the *Mail and Express* so complete a repository of learning that the files of that paper will hereafter be more frequently referred to than the standard treatises on "history, geography, biography, politics, finance, trades, arts, medicine, sports, humor, sciences, eloquence." This looks as though the Colonel were about to establish a Trust for the purpose of monopolizing Thought. But we are convinced that the book trade is too important to be crushed out in this ruthless fashion. Col. Shepard

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ought to be content with superseding the special periodical literature of the day, the historical magazines, the medical weeklies, the art and engineering journals, and keep off the domain of the book publishers, who really render a valuable service to the social economy.

A correspondent writes to us calling attention to a plan produced by Dr. Garnett at the recent meeting of the American Medical Association in Cincinnati for limiting the annual number of medical graduates. Dr. Garnett, who is President of the Association, proposed in his address the appointment of a committee in each State to attend the sessions of their respective Legislatures "for the purpose of using all honorable means looking to the reduction of the number of medical schools in the United States, and a consequent diminution in the annual number of medical graduates," and procuring the abolition of all medical schools "failing to show a greater number than fifty matriculates annually for three successive years." Our correspondent maintains that this is a manifestation of one of the worst features of trades-unionism on the part of the educated class, and as such expects us to denounce it. We cannot, however, see anything wrong in it. On the contrary, it seems to us highly commendable. Of course the assembled doctors, who received it with "storms of applause," may be actuated simply by a desire to keep down competition in their profession, but, whatever their motive, the public would gain by the carrying out of their scheme. It may be laid down as a rule that there can be no proper medical school where there are no large hospitals. Medicine cannot be taught out of books, and the country is cursed with a swarm of little medical schools which do not attempt to teach it in any other way. If there be any good way of suppressing them, it ought to be done, because untrained doctors are the worst kind of impostors. They ought to be hunted down and extirpated. But we do not ourselves think there is any good foundation for the notion that doctors are opposed to the multiplication of medical colleges because they fear competition. If every little college in the country were abolished to-morrow, the competition supplied by the large colleges would be, for all practical purposes, as great as it is now, but the poor and ignorant would be better protected against quacks and charlatans and ignoramuses.

The liquor question has been brought up in England in a very exasperating shape to the friends of temperance, by a provision in the new County Government Bill which recognizes a vested interest in their licenses on the part of liquor-dealers—that is, gives any dealer a right to compensation if a renewal of his license should be refused for any reason except misconduct. This provision was evidently put in as a sop for the liquor-dealers, or "licensed victuallers," as they are called in England, who are a very powerful body in politics there, as they are here. The whole Liberal party, as well as the temperance people proper, are up in arms against the clause, and the Ministry at first tried to defend it by saying it was based on the legal opinion of their law officers that there was a legal vested right in licenses. This opinion was, however, speedily overthrown, and more recently pronounced utterly unfounded by the Court of Queen's Bench. Sir William Harcourt, in one of the sledge-hammer speeches which he every now and then inflicts on the Tories, and which have sometimes been denounced even by his political friends as "cruel and unusual punishment," said on this subject the other day:

"You have had restrictions of all kinds growing up, and, I am happy to say, growing every year, upon the liquor traffic. You have had Sunday closing in Ireland, in Scotland, and in Wales. You have taken away by Sunday closing one-seventh part of the traffic, and you have given no compensation. You have restricted the hours, which, of course, is a diminution of right, if it be a right, and you have given no compensation. This very question has been tried before the highest tribunal in the United States, in the Supreme Court, and where the traffic has been entirely abolished the courts have determined that no question, no legal or equitable question, of compensation arises at all. [Cheers.] I speak very earnestly to you, gentlemen, upon this subject, which the Liberal party ought to fight boldly to the last. [Cheers.] It involves the question of putting a fine of millions upon millions of money upon those—who, I am happy to think, are growing every day—who wish to put a check upon a traffic which I think people are becoming more and more convinced is injurious to the best interests of the community. [Cheers.]"

There can hardly be a doubt now that the Pope has made a mistake in meddling in the Irish question. The Irish Catholic members of Parliament have, at a meeting in Dublin, united in an answer to his rescript, in which they firmly, but in respectful terms, deny the competency of the Roman Congregation to interfere in the matter at all, refuse to be bound by its utterances on the question of morals, and suggest that it has been deceived as to the facts, and especially the central fact of the Irish case, viz.: that all or nearly all the improvements on the land have been made by the tenants, who have been for a century compelled to pay rent for the use of their own additions to the landlord's property. It is not, however, because he may have been misinformed or ill-informed about the facts that the Pope is at fault. It is because it is impossible for an observer at a distance to get such a clear view of any great popular movement as to be able to pronounce an absolute judgment on its morality—that is, such a judgment as a priest has to give in the confessional. He may form a judgment good enough for a political speech, or review, or newspaper article, but he cannot form a judgment fit to be embodied in a quasi-divine admonition. The plan of campaign is one of those affairs in which each case has to be judged on its merits. There are cases in which it inflicts atrocious wrong; there are others in which no moralist can severely condemn it. The man to make the necessary distinctions in the name of religion, if anybody, is the priest on the spot to whom the campaigners confess their sins. He knows ten times as much about it as any committee of Italian cardinals can possibly know. And then it is a very serious matter for the Papacy to have the Irish, of all people, disputing its authority on a question of morals. They are, except the Tyrolese and Bretons, the only mediæval Catholics left. To quarrel with them, or weaken their allegiance, is like spending in extravagant display the remnants of a handsome patrimony.

From a Rio letter to the Paris *Brésil* we learn the probable outlines of the emancipation measure just passed by the Brazilian Parliament. As they were copied from another paper into Senhor Antonio Prado's organ, without contradiction, they doubtless represent the programme of the new Administration. Emancipation is made universal and immediate, but the enfranchised slaves must labor for three months, to save the impending harvest, at wages fixed by law. Thereafter they will be free to make contracts in accordance with the law of supply and demand. For two years, however, the freedman is confined to the municipal district where he lives, and obliged to engage in some definite occupation. Vagabondage will be punished by imprisonment with forced labor on the public works. The *ingenuos*, a class intermediate between slaves and freemen, are discharged from all further obligatory service, and enter into the full possession of civil rights. There is abundant evidence, from experiments made in every province, that, even without the legal precautions just enumerated, immediate emancipation has no menace for the industry of the country.

The precise whereabouts of Stanley, the explorer, is now a subject of anxious discussion among European newspapers and geographers. Ten months ago he left the last point from which news of him was received, that is, the camp of Yambunga. On the 10th of August, 1887, he wrote to this post, asking that fresh supplies of provisions might be sent him. Since then nothing has been heard of him. Between this point and Wadelai, the first station at which he would strike the territory of Emin Pasha, he had about 600 miles to travel through a swampy, but not impassable country. In Stanley's last letter he fixed August 15 as the date at which he should get into the lake country, where Emin Pasha would have been sure to hear of him; but Emin Pasha wrote on November 2 that he had heard nothing of him. It is unlikely that Stanley has fallen into an ambuscade and been massacred. He has 484 men, what with carriers and soldiers, who are well armed, and he is himself in this sort of warfare an experienced commander. Still another hypothesis has been propounded, namely, that having fully satisfied himself of Emin Pasha's safety and unwillingness to be "rescued," he has turned southward to do some more exploring on his own account, and will come out in the direction of Zanzibar. Everything that is said about him is thus far mere guesswork.

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PETER AND PAUL.

Of all the pleasing delusions with which the high tariff is surrounded, not one has rendered half the service in politics rendered by the notion that the more profits the tariff enabled the manufacturer to make, the higher wages he paid his workmen; and that the smaller his profits were, the worse off would his workmen be. This, like some of the stories about the effect of the tariff of 1846 on business, has passed current in nearly every protectionist speech and article for the past twenty-five years, as one of the things which nobody would gainsay. Free-traders might question whether it was worth while or just to maintain a high tariff in order to enable employers to pay high wages, but that a high tariff did enable and even force employers to pay higher wages, it was assumed that no candid person would deny. Tariff reformers might say that taking money from the consumer in order to hand it over to the manufacturer's employee, was robbing Peter to pay Paul, but it was always taken for granted that Paul got the money.

Now one of the great benefits bestowed on the public by the pending debate in Congress, is its having brought out clearly the fact that in the matter of the tariff, as in many other things, the people who rob Peter to pay Paul do not, as a rule, pay Paul at all; they keep the money themselves. They say to Peter when they are rifling his pockets: "Oh, come, now, you have more money than you know what to do with; we must help Paul, so don't make a fuss. Hand over your 47 per cent., and cheer poor Paul's home." Having got it, they simply go outside and divide it among themselves, and when they meet Paul offer him the market rate of wages for a hard day's work, and if he remonstrates tell him that there are now so many Pauls who would like the job on the same terms, that he would be wise not to complain.

In plainer English, American protected manufacturers, no matter how much they were protected from foreign competition, have followed in their dealings with their workmen the immemorial and perfectly fair rule of paying for labor the market rate as determined by supply and demand. We believe there is not the shadow of proof anywhere that wages have had any other relation to profits in America than that which exists in England or any other country, or that any American manufacturer ever paid more for satisfactory labor than he could get other equally satisfactory labor for by advertising, or, in fact, that the tariff has ever been permitted in any part of the country to interfere with the natural and usual effect of competition in keeping wages down.

All this has been brought out with admirable force and effect in the speeches of Mr. Mills, Mr. Wilson, and Mr. Scott. The way the wages argument tumbled to pieces when Mr. Mills touched it with one or two of the commonest facts of daily life, was a striking illustration of what discussion does for a question of this kind. He said:

"It is said a high tariff makes high wages for labor. It is said if we reduce the tariff, wages must be reduced. How is it high tariff makes high wages for labor? How can it be explained? Why, they say, as a matter of course, if you increase the value of the domestic product, the manufacturer is able to pay higher wages. Unquestionably he is; but does he do it? No. Mr. Jay Gould, with his immense income from his railroad property, is able to pay his bootblack $500 a day, but does he do it? Oh no; he pays the market price of the street. He gets his boots blacked and pays his nickel like a little man. [Laughter.] Mr. Vanderbilt, from the income arising from the interest on the immense amount of bonds of the Federal Government he has got, can afford to pay his hostler $10,000 a year. He is able to do it, his bonds enable him to do it; but does he do it? Oh, no; he goes out into the market and employs his labor at the market value, and pays the same price that the humblest citizen in New York does.

"High tariff does not regulate wages. Wages are regulated by demand and supply, and the capacity of the laborer to do the work for which he is employed. If high tariff regulated wages, how is it the wages in the different States of the Union are different, while the tariff is all the same from Maine to California? In every part of the territory of the United States the tariff is the same. How is it the wages are not the same? How is it that wages in the different localities of the different States are different? What is the cause? What is it which disturbs the tariff and prevents it from fixing a high rate of wages all over the country for labor?"

In other words, when the manufacturer, as a rich man, turns round to pay his laborers, he does what all sensible rich men do—pays them exactly what their labor is worth. He does not say one word to Paul about his transactions with Peter. He says to himself that his business with Peter is his own affair; that in dealing with Paul he is bound to extend to Paul whatever consideration Paul gets from everybody else, and no more. When Paul goes to the grocer's to buy flour or sugar, the grocer never says to him that he has just made a lucky turn in stocks or real estate, and is on the whole so well off that he will take 25 per cent. off the flour or the sugar. He exacts the full market price no matter how rich he feels. And the manufacturer likewise thinks and acts about the advantages he has persuaded Congress to give him through the tariff just as Thurber or Park & Tilford would think or act about a lucky venture in stocks or real estate. It is the product of his capacity and pertinacity—the legitimate return of his lobbying in Washington, or of his contribution to the Republican campaign fund. He is not stingy with it, to be sure. He is quite ready to give largely of it to libraries, and fountains, and hospitals, and schools, and colleges, and other philanthropic or charitable objects; but to divide it with Paul, as Paul's rightful share, is something he never thinks of at all. What he gives, he gives, but he only pays what he owes and can be made to pay.

It is not wonderful that in view of these things Peter should be waking up and asking whether it is not time to stop making contributions for Paul's benefit, not one cent of which Paul ever handles or profits by. For, naturally enough, Peter is not consoled by hearing that even if Paul does not get the money, it is spent in a splendid manner, by men like Mr. Carnegie, in founding libraries, or in "new and improved works to develop still further the resources of this great republic." Peter is now inquiring whether he is not himself the best person to display generosity with his own money, and whether, if the resources of this great republic are to be still further developed at his expense, he is not perfectly competent either to handle the funds himself during the process, or lend them for the purpose on approved security. This is one of the questions which the voters will this year be called on to answer, and they will answer it with a fulness of knowledge they have never had before, for the simple reason that Peter and Paul are at last coming together, and comparing notes, and finding out how monstrously they have been imposed upon.

THE SENATE AND THE TREATY.

We have commented on the gravity of the statement made by the majority of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, in respect to the fishery dispute, that "it does not seem to the Committee that the existing matters of difficulty are subjects for treaty negotiation." To this statement the signatures of Senators Sherman, Edmunds, Frye, Evarts, and Dolph are appended. It is safe to say that if the Republican party were charged with the responsibilities of the executive branch of the Government, so that their words should practically be the voice of the nation, no such declaration would have been made by them. They would as soon have put their hands in the fire as put them to such a document. It is a declaration of an intention to apply coercion to the greatest naval Power of the world, at a time, too, when we have made no preparation for a conflict even with one of the lesser Powers, and when confessedly we can make no adequate preparation under ten years, if under twenty. If war is not intended, further embroilment certainly is intended, and we all know that embroilment commonly leads to war, and especially embroilment which is chosen in preference to any kind of treaty negotiation. The truth plainly is, that these Senators rely upon the prudence of the executive branch of the Government and the amicable feelings of the two nations to avoid any unhappy consequences resulting from their words. They have constructed a campaign document, and as such their work must be judged.

There is no probability that the people will take more interest in the fishery question this year than they did last year or the year before. Certainly they will not take much interest in the matters of detail which constitute the grounds of the dispute. The only things they will fully comprehend will be the fact that a treaty has been made, and that it has been rejected, not because it was a bad treaty, but because the subject-matter was not one for negotiation at all. Then the reasons why it is not as good a subject for negotiation now as it was in 1783, in 1818, in 1854, and in 1871 will have to be given. More than this, it will be necessary to show in what way continued embroilment with the possibility of war is preferable to any kind of a treaty,

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for, as the minority of the Committee tell us, the majority declined to say how the treaty might be made satisfactory, or to offer any amendment looking to that end.

Preliminary to this we must have some justification—some statement of grievances so incurable in the very nature of things that the only escape from them is by successful war. As the minority of the Committee say: "Unless we can clearly state the causes that justify a war for the redress of grievances, or a clear definition of the right we seek to assert or defend, we have no right to subject the country to the perils, or even the apprehensions, of hostilities. It has never been stated by any administration, or diplomatist, or by Congress, that any one case, or that all the cases that have grown out of our disputes with Great Britain about the Treaty of 1818, gave a just ground for retaliation, reprisals, or war." No. The only declarations we have had of that nature have been made on the stump or in the newspapers. No person or body carrying the issues of peace or war in his or their hands has ventured so far.

It appears to us that there are reasons why both parties, and especially the Republican party, should not bring the fishery dispute, as a practical firebrand, into the campaign. If the report of the majority is a good campaign document, its merits will be better appreciated in the abstract than in the concrete. Arrangements have been provided whereby no fisherman need get into difficulties unless he desires to, pending the deliberations of the Senate. But if the treaty is now rejected, we shall probably have seizures and grievances of one kind or another sufficient to distract public attention from the real issues of the campaign. If the tariff question, pure and simple, is the thing which the Republicans have long ardently desired a Presidential battle upon, they ought not to put their success in jeopardy by introducing a question of peace or war with a foreign Power, especially in our present state of unpreparedness. It will not be wise to cater to the dynamite Irish vote at the risk of losing a large share of the moral and religious element of the party. If any excitement grows out of the fishing difficulties, it will necessarily bring into prominence the efforts made by the Administration to avoid them, the means adopted to narrow and minimize them, and the pains taken by the Senate to aggravate and multiply them. It will bring into relief the civilizing tendencies of the one side, and the opposite, we might almost say bullying, proclivities of the other; for we cannot consider in a less favorable light the declaration of the majority that no treaty at all is wanted, and that the subject-matter does not admit of one. By all means let the treaty go over to next winter, so that we may have a campaign exclusively upon home issues and home industry.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

"Such an officer as Vice-President is not wanted," said Hugh Williamson, a delegate from North Carolina, in the convention which framed the Federal Constitution, and this view found no little support in the body. But it was obvious that provision must be made for the immediate transfer of the executive power to some person in case of the death of the President; and as a number of the States had instituted the practice of choosing a Lieutenant-Governor with especial view to such a contingency, the same system was adopted for the nation. To give the Vice-President a position of consequence, as well as the potentiality of the highest power, and to furnish a further excuse for his existence, he was made presiding officer of the Senate, with the right to the casting vote in case of an equal division.

The framers of the Constitution supposed that they had insured the choice of men of the highest ability and character for the Vice-Presidency by the mode of selection adopted. Each State was to choose electors, who were in turn to choose the President and Vice-President. They were to possess unrestricted liberty of choice, and it was expected that they would be a select body of distinguished citizens, "most likely," in the words of the *Federalist*, "to possess the information and discernment requisite to such complicated investigations" as must be made in deciding between the various aspirants to the Presidency. As the person having the second largest number of votes was to be Vice-President, it was supposed that the latter official would always be a man who was held worthy of the highest place by a large proportion of his fellow-citizens.

At first the theory promised to work well in practice. John Adams was as worthy as any man after Washington to be President, and he was therefore properly elected first Vice-President. As a man who was worthy of the Vice-Presidency might well be promoted to the Presidency, the first man to hold the second office was given the highest place upon Washington's withdrawal. A very even division in the first Senate made the presiding officer of the body a real power in legislation, Adams giving as many as twenty casting votes upon questions of vital importance during the first two years of the new Government. But the election of 1796, by which Adams the Federalist became President, and Jefferson the Republican Vice-President, showed that the system of voting for two persons without specifying a choice for President presented such temptations to intrigue, and left so much to accident, that, after the controversy between Jefferson and Burr in 1800, the nation readily made the change by which the electors specify the offices, and not long after the electors lost their independence altogether, and became, as they now are, mere recording machines of the popular vote.

There was no immediate change in the character of the men chosen to the Vice-Presidency. Such leaders in their day as Aaron Burr, George Clinton, Elbridge Gerry, Daniel D. Tompkins, John C. Calhoun, and Martin Van Buren, readily accepted the office, and occasionally one of them made himself a power in legislation, as when Clinton in 1811 negatived the renewal of the charter of the United States Bank. Calhoun, who filled the place during two Presidential terms, was not able thus to impress himself upon the course of legislation, but while he held it he vastly strengthened his equipment as a constitutional statesman. "The station, from its leisure," he said years afterwards, "gave me a good opportunity to study the genius of the prominent measure of the day, called then the American system, by which I profited."

Half-a-century has wrought a great change both in the estimation of the office and in the character of the men usually presented to fill it. During the greater part of that time the dominant party, whichever it might be, had so large a majority in the Senate that the Vice-President was almost never called upon for a vote, and he has thus been reduced to utter insignificance in legislation, insomuch that an occupant of the chair has remarked bitterly that it almost seemed as though a well-trained parrot could take his place. Nothing can be imagined more distasteful to a man who has been a prominent figure in either branch of Congress, than to be suddenly deprived of the power even to open his mouth on the merits of a question in which he may be profoundly interested. William A. Wheeler, the last incumbent who served the full four years, had been a man of much consequence in the House of Representatives, and he chafed constantly under the limitations of his position in the Senate Chamber. So unattractive and even repellent is the place that men who have become familiar with it, like John Sherman and Gen. Hawley for example, declare with perfect honesty their utter unwillingness to accept it; and a party sometimes almost needs to exercise compulsion to secure for it a man who is worthy to fill the higher office to which it may any day prove the stepping-stone.

For this is the unfortunate feature of the matter, that while the Vice-Presidency repels the best men, only the best men ought to have the place, because of its possibilities with reference to the Presidency. Four of the eighteen men elected to the Presidency during our first century have died in office, and Vice-Presidents have occupied the White House for periods of three years and eleven months, two years and eight months, three years and ten months, and three years and five months. In four Presidential terms out of twenty-five the Vice-President has been President nearly the whole period, the chief power during 14 years out of 100 having resided with a man who was not vested with it by the people. According to the law of average, therefore, there must be held to be one chance in six that any man chosen Vice-President will become President, and consequently every man chosen to the second place ought to be worthy of the first.

Unhappily, however, the Vice-President comes to his place almost without a thought of his qualifications for the Presidency. He is the choice in the first instance of a nominating convention, and his selection there is due to considerations of "availability" as a candidate in a campaign. He is hastily picked out to strengthen the ticket in a doubtful State, like Hendricks in 1884; or as the representative of a faction in the Convention which

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has failed to get its candidate for President, like Arthur in 1880; or to represent some "element," like Johnson in 1864 as the type of the loyal man in the border States. It is safe to say that no delegate who voted for Johnson in 1864 ever thought of his becoming President, or raised the question whether he was fit to be President; the same thing was equally true in Arthur's case sixteen years later. If either had been suggested in the Convention as a candidate for the highest place, he would not have received a single vote, but each filled it for almost a whole term.

There appears to be no feasible method of changing the character of the office so as to make it more desirable, but it is possible to elevate the standard of the men elected to it. Disagreeable as it may appear to the eager debater, the position is not without its attractions to the thoughtful man, and it would doubtless still be practicable to secure its acceptance by a man of Calhoun's type. The effort certainly should be made by each party. While we may hope to escape assassination, the cases of Harrison and Taylor show that natural causes may cause a vacancy, and the warnings of forty years ago should be heeded, even if one does not fear another Booth or Guiteau. In Mr. Cleveland's case the possibility of sudden breakdown from his excessive application must be kept in mind, while if Mr. Blaine is nominated, there is abundant reason for giving special heed to the second place on the ticket.

The circumstances are peculiarly favorable for securing proper attention to this matter among the Democrats. The certainty of Mr. Cleveland's renomination enables the delegates to devote to the Vice-Presidency the attention which is usually monopolized by the contest over the Presidency. High-mindedness in the choice, and patriotism in the acceptance, will be one of the most valuable political lessons yet given to the country by any party, and a veritable landmark in our emergence from the toils of party.

THE MUTATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT BILL.

WE lately traced the evolution of the "Chace" Copyright Bill to the time of its favorable report to the Senate, by the Committee on Patents, on March 19. It was taken up for consideration by the Senate on Monday, April 23, and the amended text suggested by the Committee was accepted. Two additional alterations were proposed by Senator Chace: (1) to reinsert the word "chromo" (which had inadvertently been omitted) in the paragraph of the bill amending section 4956 of the Revised Statutes; and (2) to amend the bill so as to confine the stipulation, "printed from type set within the limits of the United States," to books and dramatic compositions, and to provide that in the case of "engraved works, photographs, or similar articles, two copies of the same" shall be deposited. Both amendments were agreed to by the Senate, whereupon the Senator, after a lengthy speech, desired to press the bill to a vote. But further changes were promptly proposed by Senators Morrill and Vance. The former, in behalf of the publishers of *Littell's Living Age* and the *Eclectic Magazine*, submitted the following proviso:

"That publishers of newspapers or other periodicals in the United States shall be allowed to copy in those publications any articles which may appear in the newspapers or other periodicals of any foreign country, and for that purpose, and not for sale, shall be allowed to import such newspapers and other periodicals."

This amendment was opposed by Mr. Chace, who, on April 30, announced that he was authorized to withdraw it and substitute another, to the effect "that any publisher of a newspaper or magazine may without such consent [*i. e.*, of the proprietors of periodicals copyrighted in this country] import for his own use, but not for sale, not more than two copies of any newspaper or magazine published in a foreign country;" which substitute was accepted. Senator Vance's proposal was to exclude "newspapers, magazines, and periodicals" from obtaining copyright at all. This exclusion would have applied to American as well as to foreign journals; and, although the proposition was voted down, it must have startled American magazine proprietors to learn how gravely their property was jeoparded; no less than seventeen Senators putting themselves upon record as favoring a legislative enactment which, if carried into effect, would have rendered impossible the continued existence of the leading periodicals now published in the United States.

The "protection" features of the bill offered tempting opportunity for attack to the free-trade party in the Senate, and Senators Call, Vest, and Jones of Arkansas made vigorous protests against the requirement of total manufacture in the United States, and the prohibition of importation. Mr. Vest moved to strike out the words "from type set," leaving the manufacturing clause to read: "printed within the limits of the United States," but, upon being put to a vote, this amendment was rejected. On April 30 Mr. Jones proposed that the entire non-importation clause be omitted, and the vote was taken, but, as no quorum voted, this amendment came up again on May 9, when, less than a quorum again voting, although a call of the Senate indicated that the requisite number of Senators were present, it was withdrawn. On the last day of the discussion upon the bill, Senator Teller asked to have a section added limiting the term of the act to five years, which was not agreed to. No further amendments being proposed, a vote was taken upon the bill as a whole, and it was passed by 34 yeas to 10 nays, 32 Senators not voting.

The important provisions of the act, as passed by the Senate, may be briefly stated to consist of such amendment of the copyright law of the United States as will extend the protection therein guaranteed to literary and artistic property to all such property, without regard to the nationality of its creator or owner, provided certain stipulations are complied with. These are (1) that a printed title of the book or other article, or a description of a work of art, shall be recorded before publication; and (2) that two copies of a literary or artistic publication, or one copy of a photograph of a work of art, shall be deposited. After copyright has thus been secured, it is enacted that, during the term of its existence, the importation into the United States of any book or other article so copyrighted is prohibited, except that not more than two copies at any one time may be imported, provided written consent thereto has been obtained from the proprietor of the copyright, signed in the presence of two witnesses. In order to prevent other importation than is thus allowed, it is made the duty of the officer of record (the Librarian of Congress) to prepare "lists of copyrighted articles," which the Secretary of the Treasury is ordered to print weekly, and distribute to collectors of customs and postmasters, who are instructed to seize and destroy all copies of "such prohibited articles," whenever any attempt is made to bring them into the United States.

But the Librarian of Congress is simply a ministerial officer, not vested with any judicial authority, and he is obliged to record claims of copyright without regard to their legal value. In practice, therefore, many titles are entered, and copies deposited, of works which cannot secure legal protection under our copyright laws. It is reasonable to suppose that this practice will increase under the new act, especially in regard to foreign books. To illustrate: A German publisher will send, as directed in the act, a title-page and two copies of a foreign book which bears a claim of copyright. If accompanied by the proper fee, the title is recorded, and the copies of the book are deposited in the Library of Congress. Or the title-page of one of Walter Scott's novels is sent for record, and copies of the book, printed in the United States, are deposited. In both cases (as this act gives the Librarian of Congress no discretion) the titles of the volumes will be entered in the lists prepared for the use of customs officers and postmasters, whereupon foreign editions of these books at once become "prohibited articles," according to the phraseology of the act. The question then arises, what guarantee has the innocent purchaser who sends to Germany or England for either of these works that his book will not be seized and destroyed at the first American custom-house or post-office?—although in the first case the copyright claimed could not be sustained in our courts because the book was not manufactured in this country, as required by the act; and in the second case there is no legal copyright because the author's works have long since become public property.

As regards the deposit of copies, section 2 of the act requires that such deposit shall take place "not later than the day of the publication thereof in this or any foreign country," this being an alteration of section 4956 of the Revised Statutes, wherein the delivery of the copies is required to be made "within ten days from publication." But section 4959, which also contains a provision that "two complete printed copies of the best edition issued" of a book are to be deposited "within ten days after its publication," is neither repealed nor amended, though it is difficult to see how the two sections are to be made to harmonize. It is distinctly required, as regards a book or dramatic composition, that the copies deposited shall be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States," but no stipulation of this nature is made concerning the copies to be deposited in the case of "engraved works, photographs, or other similar articles," which articles may, therefore, be of foreign manufacture and yet obtain copyright. Are such engravings in that case to be imported only in lots of two copies, each importation accompanied by a written permit from the proprietor authenticated by witnesses? It is left to conjecture whether a musical composition is, or is not, to be considered as a "book," no mention being made in the act of this kind of literature; and while maps and charts may easily be considered as embraced in the designation "engraved works," no provision is discoverable concerning the deposit of copies of chromos. Our pre-

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sent statutes relating to copyrights are very inadequate and by no means free from perplexities of interpretation; and it is to be regretted, therefore, that the provisions of the Senate act are such that their interpolation into the old law will increase rather than diminish the difficulties of construction.

CATHOLICISM IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, May 5, 1888.

THE National ranks in Ireland have sustained a heavy loss in the death, at the comparatively early age of forty-two, of Edmund Dwyer Gray, editor of the *Freeman's Journal*. His father, Doctor, afterwards Sir John Gray, one of O'Connell's many Protestant lieutenants, purchased the paper before daily journals had become the serious undertakings they now are. After the disruption of the Repeal and Forty-eight agitations, Dr. Gray settled down to make the best of a bad business, virtually abandoning the National, but throwing himself vigorously into all subsidiary Irish questions, such as Land Reform, Education, and Church Disestablishment. For years, as the leading combatant of his time, he was perhaps the man best hated by the ascendency party in Ireland, peculiarly hateful as being a Presbyterian and of Presbyterian family, while editor of the chief Catholic paper. He was a man of uncommon and statesmanlike ability, and, if Ireland had had a government of her own, would still more have made his mark. He left an imperishable monument of his capacity and resolution in the splendid Vartry water supply of this city, a project which he successfully carried through against the strongest opposition of the respectable classes, which, since the corporation became really representative of the people, have resented and withstood all extension of its powers. For this achievement Dr. Gray was knighted by a liberal Lord-Lieutenant, the Earl of Carlisle.

Edmund Dwyer Gray had, perhaps, greater and wider capacity than his father. He was clear-sighted and practical. If once he came within the power of the law, it was not that he transgressed any act of Parliament, but that an irascible judge, at a time when party feeling was strung to the highest pitch, took an opportunity of paying off old scores with the *Freeman*, and committed him to several months' imprisonment for contempt of court. To the present movement the *Freeman* accorded but a tardy support. Before the position of Mr. Parnell was assured, Mr. Gray occasionally publicly differed from him; he "tried one fall" with the rising leader, and then became his follower, modifying and moulding the policy of the party as far as possible, in public and in private. Socially, Mr. Gray was charming; he kept open house and helped to elevate and extend national feeling by his hospitalities.

One misfortune of the chasm between Protestant and Catholic here is, that those Protestants who sympathize with and join the National party to any considerable degree, insensibly become more at home among Catholics than among their own coreligionists. It was therefore not unnatural that Mr. Gray should marry a Catholic lady. She was a daughter of Caroline Chisholm, so well known in the early fifties for her philanthropic work in connection with female emigration to Australia. Mrs. Gray is a woman who would adorn any faith. Before long Mr. Gray himself openly joined the Catholic Church, thereby removing the anomaly of the leading Catholic paper of one of the most strongly Catholic countries in the world being edited by a Protestant. Mr. Biggar, Mr. Parnell's principal coadjutor, like Mr. Gray brought up a Presbyterian, went over to Rome about the same time. Of the public men I have known, both would have appeared about the least likely to make this change. Yet the one is, I believe, a sincere son of the Church, the other died in the odor of sanctity. Still I cannot believe that in either case the change was doctrinal: I think it was more national and emotional. Seeing the hateful guise which Irish Protestantism assumes, generally opposing every broad reform tending towards freedom and enlightenment here, the change was, however, natural. I have known many such conversions, but, in looking back, can recollect only two Catholics who have become Protestants. I lately asked an elderly Episcopal clergyman how many such cases he had known; he could think of only one, which proved to be one of the two that I had recalled.

The reason of the strength and attractiveness, so to speak, of Catholicism in Ireland is not far to seek. With you it is intrusive. Ireland is its natural home. Here Protestantism has been intrusive, and not even through free immigration, but by confiscation and at the point of the sword. Your ancestors, at least in New England, crossed the Atlantic expecting to found states upon the sure basis of what was best in Protestantism. There must be something peculiarly exasperating in these anticipations being jeopardized by a mainly ignorant and impoverished foreign immigration. Catholicism has all along been the central undeniable fact in Ireland, to be dealt with as we would, but to be fully accepted. Those who dream of the conversion of the Irish to Protestantism entertain a chimera born of the reports and wishes of those who live by keeping up the delusion. Catholicism, here as elsewhere, will, of course, change in time, as all religious thought changes; but I believe it will never consciously become Protestant. All we can hope for in the elevation of Ireland must come theoretically in alliance with it.

The more increasingly I prize Protestant freedom, and feel the impossibility of my becoming a Catholic, the more I respect and would avoid all appearance of, or actual, interference with Irish Catholicism. It is everything fairest, best, and truest to the Irish people. It is bound up with their ideas of home, nationality, and common suffering. For an Irish Catholic to turn Protestant is like abjuring the better part of his nature, and condoning a system inimical to his race. We are apt to consider Catholicism in its purely ecclesiastical aspect. If we look into Catholic religious shops—at the gaudy plaster statues, the beads, and rosaries, and crucifixes, and other paraphernalia of religion, at the to us sickly or awful publications, such as Father Furness's 'Hell Opened to Christians,' if we turn over the leaves of a strictly Catholic periodical and dip into its to us unreal world of martyrs, saintly ecclesiastics, and immaculate communities, illustrated in a language of unreasoning adulation and complete subjection of the critical faculties—if we dwell upon these alone as Catholicism, we are likely to feel that there is no hope for the people who cling to such supports and modes of thought. But they are no more representative of Catholicism in Ireland than the Salvation Army *War-Cry* is a fair exemplar of Protestantism in its broadest sense. To know what Irish Catholicism really is, we must know the hearts and minds of the Irish people; and the more we do so the more we perceive its strength and to them sustaining force and beauty under all the trials and perplexities of life, and amid all the peculiar trials and perplexities of Irish agitation. We Protestants may wish things otherwise; we may and do consider this an enervating support, whose principles, if adhered to, can never build up men and nations as can Protestantism. But such as it is to them, we are bound to respect it.

The priesthood here could not maintain their influence if their characters were not in the main high. There is scarcely any form of human suffering that is not minimized by the charities conducted by the Catholic religious communities over the length and breadth of the land. They educate the young, raise the fallen, minister to the sick, poor, and insane, tend those afflicted with incurable maladies. The working of these institutions always impresses me with the single-minded and practical devotion with which they are conducted. This applies also to private life. What I see of "spiritual advisers" and parochial clergy convinces me how entirely merited, especially in the cases of unprotected girls in town situations, is the confidence placed in them. In our Protestantism we have nothing to correspond to the help afforded, particularly to the isolated, by constant access to advisers and consolers, to whom every thought may be confided, and whose counsel on any juncture may be sought with the absolute certainty of secrecy.

I know of no other reformatory work so completely and efficiently done as that by the religious orders. I cannot say what results the military precision with which they carry on their labors may have upon the after lives of those they benefit, as compared with the effects of Protestant methods. The extent to which the orders absorb the philanthropic energy of society seems to me to narrow ordinary life. The deep and abiding interest in wide philanthropic efforts imparted to the hearts and daily lives of so many Protestant families cannot be felt where such work is delegated mainly to orders in conventual or other institutions. For the most part, the highest and most spiritual natures among Irish Catholics devote themselves to a celibate life. It was Miss Cobbe, I think, who first pointed out the possible deteriorating effect this may have upon future generations. Interest in world-wide philanthropy, outside the limit of churches, appears to exist in inverse ratio to the power of the churches. Here in Ireland it is greatest among the dissenters, who number some tenth of the population, less among the Episcopalians, who form twelve per cent., least of all among Catholics, who constitute the majority. I can call to mind the names of only two Irish Catholics that took any effective part in the anti-slavery movement. The greater the religious organization, the more the sustainment of its prestige becomes the aim and object of its votaries. A Catholic clergyman who held a cure in the outskirts of Dublin, told me that he was stopped by his superiors in active temperance work because he gave offence to the liquor-sellers in his district, who were the most munificent supporters of local Catholic charities.

In business dealings and with workmen, no difference regarding honesty and reliability is to be remarked between Catholics and Protestants of equal education and opportunities. But Catholic workmen do not seem to me so desirous to rise as Protestants. It is painful the extent to which men in the higher positions, even with Nationalist employers, have to be brought from the north of Ireland or from Great Britain. Nor, I think, have Catholics here with equal openings yet proved themselves on the whole as capable as Protestants of inaugurating and conducting business operations on a large scale. But this may be all due

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to the disabilities under which Catholics suffered until lately, and to the centuries' start which Protestants got in every relation of life. Easy and delightful social intercourse between Catholics and Protestants of mature age is always possible, but it is more or less prevented where in families there are young people, with the danger of mixed marriages, and their attendant difficulties regarding the religion of children.

Catholicism is to the Irish light, truth, joy, and freedom; but no less so is their national cause, which their Church may, through sympathy, help to sanctify and guide, but which even it cannot repress. The papal pronunciamiento is now the absorbing subject of interest here. I thought I should the better avoid too hasty conclusions regarding its probable effects, and the better prepare your readers for its consideration, by devoting a letter to Irish Catholicism, to which subject a few remarks on Mr. Gray's life, character, and conversion would naturally lead. D. B.

THE GERMANIZATION OF ALSACE-LORRAINE.

STRASSBURG, May 3, 1888.

FOR the first time in the history of the Imperial Reichstag, an Alsatian delegate, Dr. Petri of Strassburg, declared a few weeks ago that the questions relating to Alsace-Lorraine would be always considered and discussed by him from a German national standpoint only. This declaration, coming as it did from a delegate popular in the annexed territory, was most warmly received by the Government, and has been hailed by the German press as the dawn of a new era for Alsace-Lorraine. Whether a new era is really dawning, it is, perhaps, too soon to say, but the last year has at least been marked by a change in the Government policy towards the Reichsland, and serves to illustrate the political feeling in the provinces and the progress made in the efforts to Germanize them.

In face of the general election of February, 1887, following upon the dissolution of the Reichstag after the rejection of the Army Bill, Prince Hohenlohe, who succeeded the late Gen. Manteuffel in 1884 as Stadthalter of Strassburg, issued a proclamation calling upon all loyal Alsatians to show their patriotism by supporting candidates favorable to the bill. It was, perhaps, not a discreet thing to do, for his answer was an overwhelming defeat of the Government candidates, and the Protest party, at whose head stood Kablé, the Strassburg delegate, seemed stronger than ever. The death of Kablé, however, made a bye-election necessary in July. The hasty candidature of Von Moltke was unsuccessful, and the seat was won by Dr. Petri, who, though a personal friend of Kablé, was not a member of the Protest party, and whose platform was an acceptance of the situation as it is. But the result of the bye-election was for the most part unheeded in Germany, compared with the surprise and disappointment called forth by the general election which preceded it. Something seemed to be wrong with the policy hitherto pursued towards the provinces, and there were outspoken criticisms in the press of the attitude taken by Manteuffel. This blunt soldier had once declared: "I do not ask for any sympathy from the Alsatians; all I want is obedience." Nevertheless, he used every effort to cultivate friendly relations, and carried this so far that in cases of legal disputes between Alsatians and new-comers it was said that the former had the Stadthalter's influence in their favor, whether their cause were right or wrong. In spite of Manteuffel's apparent personal popularity, the German Empire seemed as little popular as ever. During the first years of Prince Hohenlohe's administration everything was much as it had been before. But, following closely upon the discussion of the Army Bill in the Reichstag, affairs in Alsace-Lorraine took a new turn. Stricter measures were enforced, a large number of arrests for treason were made, and it became apparent that the Government expected to try a policy of greater severity. The cases of high treason tried at Leipzig last summer revealed the fact that the disaffection in Alsace was greater than had been imagined, and German public opinion was loud in its approval of rigorous repressive measures.

The Strassburg University came in for a share of the blame. There were complaints that it had failed to perform the task for which it was founded, namely, not only to furnish the means of higher education to Alsace-Lorraine, but also, as an imperial university equipped at enormous expense by the Government, and aided by an annual subsidy of 400,000 marks, to build a centre for national ideas, political as well as academical, in the south-west borders of the empire. These expectations have not yet been fulfilled in the measure anticipated, certainly through no fault of the University, but simply because too much was demanded of it. The rector of 1887 said in a public discourse to the students: "It is our task now to conquer with German ideas this land that we have already conquered with the sword." It was a frank statement of the circumstances, and for such a task fifteen years is far too short a time. It was in the Reichstag debate over the annual appropriation for the University that Dr. Petri made the noteworthy declaration above quoted.

If the past year has seen a change of feeling on the part of old Germany towards the Reichsland, it has also been a year of excitement among the Alsatians themselves. The numerous arrests have made people nervous. New regulations, none of them singly of much importance, have irritated the shopkeepers. During the last winter, for instance, it became necessary for the first time that the quality and price of goods exposed for sale should be designated in marks instead of francs. Dating from February, all new business signs in Strassburg must be in German, though the old French ones may be retained as long as they last. There is no real hardship in this; it is simply an attack upon a certain sentiment. There is no reason why a firm that has called itself for a generation "Müller, Père et Fils" should not call itself "Müller, Vater und Sohn," especially as the Müllers, let us say, very probably speak German, of the Alsatian type, in their family; but it is exactly in little things of this sort that people like to be let alone. The Government is proceeding calmly to enforce its regulations, with the patience and pettiness that are such marked traits of the German character, and with a supreme indifference to local opinion. The German minor official has few friends even among his own countrymen, indeed, not as many as his fidelity ought to bring him, and enough allowance is not made for the exceedingly delicate duties of the officials in a city like Strassburg. The hand of the Government must be everywhere; now limiting the number of hours of instruction in French in a girl's private school, and now breaking up a young men's athletic club because the funds for the development of Alsatian muscle were found to come from the other side of the Vosges. As may be imagined, the young Alsatians who serve in the army are never quartered here, but are usually sent to the eastern frontier of Germany.

The line of division between the "inhabitants" and the "immigrants," to adopt the expressions of the Strassburg *Post*, the leading Government organ of the region, is nowhere to be studied to such advantage as in Strassburg. Metz is a fort in a conquered country, and no one pretends that it is anything else; Mülhausen is in many respects a French manufacturing town; but Strassburg, in spite of the statue of Louis XIV. on the façade of the minster, and the French names of the streets cut into the sandstone of the corner houses, is not a French city, and here is the centre of the characteristic life of the provinces. The physical peculiarities of the Alsatians, and their strongly marked Alemannic dialect, make it impossible to mistake them among the tall men of the north who jostle them on the narrow streets. This difference runs through the whole business and social life of the city. The shops are either "German" or Alsatian; in the latter French is spoken by preference. Alsatian and "German" cafés and beer halls are side by side, and the patrons of one are rarely seen in the other; indeed, the consumption of Munich beer, the favorite beverage of the "immigrant" class, is a test of a man's politics. Of recent years the regular performances in the city theatre have been exclusively in German, but let M. Coquelin come once a year with his Paris company, and everything in the audience is changed—faces, fashions, and tastes. The two elements of the population avoid each other by mutual consent, when this is possible. The growth in social weight of the "immigrant" class tends to give these people a society of their own. Theirs is the new quarter of the city, near the University and the Kaiser's palace; theirs is the consciousness of strength, and theirs is the future.

Recent investigations into the language line of the Reichsland show that though in Lorraine the section where French is the language of the villages runs diagonally across the province, in Alsace, on the other hand, the language line coincides marvellously, except in the extreme south, with the political boundary. The French language as spoken on German soil is ultimately doomed. It must be remembered that it was only after 1840 that real efforts were made to introduce French as the language of the Church and schools in the country districts. Napoleon III. was alive to the political advantages of this effort, and in the decade previous to 1870 the schools were carried on in French to a large extent, though the Church itself was constant in its objections to the religious instruction being given in any other language than the native German. The state of things to-day may be illustrated by the fact that while, shortly after the war, almost every servant-girl coming to Strassburg from the neighboring villages spoke French, having learned it in the village schools, it is now rare to find such a servant with a knowledge of the language, unless there are exceptional circumstances in the case. A few phrases are often picked up for gentility's sake, and it is not at all uncommon to hear "Bon soir" from a servant-girl or a butcher-boy as a cheery morning greeting. In many Alsatian families French is spoken simply because the Government is trying to stamp it out; but a language cannot live long without other nourishment than a spirit of obstinacy.

The real political sentiments of the Alsatians in Strassburg do not often find expression. The people are too wise to talk much, in view of the object-lessons they have been having. There is a large class of irreconcilables, as was of course to be expected. Men who have been

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shelled by the Prussians in a siege are not likely to forget it, or to refrain from telling their children about it. Otherwise the fear of arrest keeps them close-mouthed; but these are the men and women who expatriate their sons rather than have them serve in the German Army. The younger generation is more bitter than German politicians once imagined that it would be, though it must be borne in mind that there is an excitement and a sentiment in the cultivation of French sympathies that tend to keep these alive among the younger folk. The majority of the Alsatians, however, seem politically indifferent. If there is in this majority no love for the German Empire, there is equally no love for republican France. The French sentiment in Alsace-Lorraine is, on the whole, rated too high, and nowhere more so than in France itself. The feelings of the Alsatians who emigrated to Nancy or Paris after the war, who have been nursing their wrath to keep it warm, and are prominent in the chauvinistic agitation meetings, must not be taken as representative of all Alsatians now in the Reichsland. What the Alsatians really feel is that they are a distinct people, divided from their neighbors on either side. Dialect, customs, temperament, separate them from their German kinsmen; but in all these respects they are still further away from France. I once asked the nurse of a bright little fellow playing in the public park here if the boy was French or German. She answered, with a puzzled shrug that left no doubt as to her own nationality, "He is—Strassburger." There is the whole political situation in three words.

In the country villages there is a general indifference to politics, just as there might be anywhere else in Germany or France. There are sometimes sharp complaints of the fines imposed by the local police upon the native population for causes that seem to the latter too slight, such as deficient drainage or irregularity in the handling of live stock. It is possible to appeal from these fines, but the wiser villagers do not try it. They grumble among themselves, and the boys are apt to leave for America if they can get away; but, in general, the situation is accepted as inevitable. Most of the peasants do not probably care overmuch what government administers the taxes, provided the taxes do not increase. A year or so ago I talked with an intelligent peasant at Elsasshausen, where the French made their last stand after the battle of Wörth had gone against them. The peasant described how his little barn had been burned by "the Prussians." "But of course you are a good German now," I remarked. "Why not?" was the naïve answer; "they paid me 700 francs damages."

To sum up, one must not imagine that the new era whose advent has been lately announced, arises from any particular change of sentiments in the mass of the people. That mass is slow to move. But it is important to note that there is a group of leading Alsatians who are tired of voting with the Protest party, and who, recognizing that the provinces are irrecoverably united to Germany, have decided to take their political stand accordingly, and to work, in the words of Dr. Petri's platform of last July, "for the welfare of our city, of our province, and of the empire." There may always be students of politics who will doubt the wisdom of Bismarck's annexation of Alsace and Lorraine, but, once annexed, they have been governed with admirable firmness, and with a thoroughness that leaves no doubt of the ultimate issue. Compared with the patience that regulates the studies of a girls' private school and a shopkeeper's sign and a peasant's barnyard, and that can, let it be added, throw a million of the best drilled soldiers in Europe behind the splendid forts of the western frontier, it seems as if the demonstrations of the chauvinists in France, the funereal draping of the statue of Strassburg on the Place de la Concorde at Paris, the songs of Deroulède, and the myth of Boulanger, were but child's play—a play that may, indeed, grow dangerous, but mainly so to the child itself. B. P.

THE PRINCESSE DE LAMBALLE.

PARIS, May 4, 1888.

THE memory of Marie Antoinette will always be associated with the names of Mme. de Lamballe and of Mme. de Polignac, and I have read with interest a volume which M. George Bertin, the editor of the *Revue Retrospective*, has just written on the first of these two favorites of the unfortunate Queen. The Prince de Lamballe was the son of the Duc de Penthièvre, who was called the *bon Duc*, and was universally loved and respected, and of Marie Félicité d'Este. He was married at the age of nineteen to Mlle. de Savoie-Carignan, who was eighteen years old. The marriage was not happy; the young Prince de Lamballe was very dissolute, and his father had hoped to cure him of his many vices by marrying him. Soon after his marriage the Prince de Lamballe became dangerously ill, and he died at Luciennes, near Versailles, at the age of twenty-one.

The Duc de Penthièvre begged the young widow to remain with him, and he became a real father to her. She spent the first part of her widowhood with him at Rambouillet, in company with his daughter, Mlle. de Bourbon. Her sister-in-law was married in 1769 to the Duc de Chartres. In 1770 the Dauphin was married to the Archduchess of Austria, Marie Antoinette, and Mme. de Lamballe, in virtue of her rank, took part in all the festivities of the marriage. The intimacy between her and the young Dauphiness did not, however, begin at once; the Princesse de Lamballe did not often leave the Duc de Penthièvre, who was very fond of her, and to whom she was herself very devoted.

In 1774 the Dauphin became Louis XVI., and Marie Antoinette ascended the throne. She made Mme. de Lamballe one of her companions, and from that moment we see them constantly together. The papers of the time, the 'Journal' of Bachaumont, show them together at the theatre, at the representations of the operas of Gluck, the favorite of the Queen (it was the time of the quarrel of the Gluckists and the Piccinists — as bitter as the present quarrel of the Wagnerians and the anti-Wagnerians). Mme. de Lamballe was one of the chosen friends who were admitted to the Trianon. Marie Antoinette had been educated at Vienna, and, as Dauphiness, the etiquette of the French court had much annoyed her. She had always asked her husband to give her a house where she could live as she pleased. Louis XVI. gave her the Grand and the Petit Trianon; she arranged them both after her own taste. Mercy, the Austrian Ambassador, who kept Maria Theresa informed of all the actions of the young Queen, wrote to her: "The Queen is now occupied with a garden *à l'Anglaise*, which she is making at Trianon; this amusement would be quite innocent if it left any room for serious ideas." Maria Theresa, who was a very severe mother, answers: "I am more and more convinced that I was not mistaken in my estimation of the character, wholly inclined to dissipation, which I have attributed for a long time to my daughter." Mercy speaks of Mme. de Lamballe as the great favorite; he describes her to us thus: "She adds to much sweetness and amiability a most honest character, foreign to intrigue, and without any drawback."

The Duc de Penthièvre presided in 1774 over the States of Brittany, and took with him, on his journey, the Princess, his daughter-in-law. She helped him to smooth many difficulties and to receive the deputations which were sent to him. The Queen, meanwhile, was trying to attach Mme. de Lamballe to herself by some official function; she wished to have her appointed *surintendante*, a post which was much desired by the greatest ladies of the court. This nomination was quite an event. Mercy at times encourages it, and at times he seems uneasy. Marie Antoinette had to triumph over the resistance of the ministers and of the King himself; finally, she writes herself to her mother: "I hope that what my dear mamma will soon learn about Mme. de Lamballe will persuade her that there is nothing to fear from her friendship with my sisters-in-law. She has always had a good reputation, and she has not at all the Italian character. She is established here for life, as well as her brother [the Comte de Villefranche, who had been made by Louis XVI. colonel of a regiment of infantry, and had received from him a pension of 30,000 livres]. I think they feel, both of them, that France is now their country."

Maria Theresa hesitated; she felt instinctively that the French would not like the appointment of a foreigner as *surintendante* of the Queen. This post was of great importance, the *surintendante* being as great a personage as the *camarera mayor* in Spain. She received a salary of 50,000 livres a year, and had besides a great patronage and many material advantages. The great friendship of the Queen and of Mme. de Lamballe excited much jealousy and much comment. "The Queen," writes Bachaumont, "has the greatest affection for the young Princess. It is known that her Majesty often has parties with her at the Petit Trianon, to which she admits no men, and only a few of her ladies. There she allows herself freely all the amiable liberties of her age." The Duc de Chartres and his friends once succeeded in entering this feminine circle, disguising themselves as bears and tigers. A showman introduced them in the garden, and the ferocious animals were soon recognized, and dined with the ladies. The Princess sometimes gave small balls at her own house, which the Queen could attend, and have supper with whomever she liked.

The reign of favorites is short. Mme. de Lamballe soon found a rival in Mme. de Polignac. Her health was bad, she was subject to neuralgia, and was sometimes obliged to leave the court and to go to some watering-place; and sovereigns, as La Bruyère remarks, like assiduity. While Mme. de Lamballe was at Plombières, she was forgotten. The favor of Mme. de Polignac alarmed her, and she tried to destroy her rival, who did not spare her in turn.

When Joseph II., the brother of Marie Antoinette, made his visit to Paris, under the name of Count Falkenstein, he dined once at the Trianon. He told his sister that Mme. de Lamballe had not pleased him. "The Queen," writes Mercy to Maria Theresa, "confessed that she had been mistaken in this favorite, and that she repented having placed her in the post which she occupied." The *surintendante* had soon the mortification of seeing Count Polignac made a duke; her rival had the *tabouret* of a duchess, and became the inseparable com-

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panion of the Queen. She continued, however, her service, and we see her mentioned at all the great ceremonies, in all the visits of princes and sovereigns. She was glad to escape from court when she could, and to live with her excellent father-in-law at Eu, at Aumale, at Châteauvillain, at Amboise—the Duc de Penthièvre had many estates, his fortune was immense, and his charity boundless. He was very pious, and liked a retired life; Mme. de Lamballe was happy to forget in his company the difficulties and troubles of the court. Rambouillet was one of the Duc de Penthièvre's houses. Marie Antoinette coveted it, and the King expressed this desire to the Duke. He simply replied: "Your Majesty shall always be obeyed, but will allow me to take away from the place the remains of my ancestors." The coffins were taken out of the vault, and transported from Rambouillet to Dreux; the Duke following the procession all the way on foot. Dreux has ever since remained the burying-place of the Orleans family. Rambouillet became the property of the King, and is now the property of the State.

The States-General opened in May, 1789, and a new life began for Marie Antoinette. Everybody remarked her sad expression on the day of the opening ceremony. She had many enemies; abominable pamphlets had been written and were circulating against her; her most innocent actions had been turned as crimes against her. She was no longer the frivolous young Princess of Trianon, happy to forget for a moment that she was a queen. She was not mistaken in the character of the revolution which was beginning. When the Bastille was taken, Mme. de Lamballe was away, staying with the Duc de Penthièvre. The Comte d'Artois soon afterwards emigrated, the Comtesse d'Artois left for Turin. Mme. de Polignac, who had lived in the intimacy of the Queen, whom she had appointed governess of the children of France in 1782, offered her resignation and abandoned her royal friend.

The news of the events at Versailles on October 5 and 6, and of the forced return of the King and Queen to Paris, reached the Château d'Eu on the 7th of October. Mme. de Lamballe was there with her father-in-law. "O, papa," she said, "what horrible events! I must go at once"; and she left, nor did the old Duke try to prevent her. She took her place near the Queen in the Palace of the Tuileries, and became a witness of the long agony of the monarchy. The King continued his usual life, with an almost incredible calm and serenity. He went out shooting sometimes, and noted the game he had shot, as he had always done; the Queen was more conscious of her danger, and was in great trouble of mind. The diary of Louis XVI. records in the most laconic manner the events of the time. This is its style:

"February 22, Nothing. Hubbub at the Luxembourg.
"February 24, Nothing. Hubbub at the Tuileries.
"February 28, Nothing. Hubbub at Vincennes and at the Tuileries."

This hubbub (*train*), which he noted as nothing, became so loud that he thought of leaving France, in his turn, with his wife and children. The Memoirs of Mme. de Tourzel give us all the details on this project and on the journey to Varennes. We read also in the Memoirs of the Marquis de Clermont-Gallerande: "On the Sunday which preceded the departure of the Queen, Marie Antoinette told Mme. de Lamballe to go for a week to the country, and, taking her hand, said adieu to her with an intonation more tender than usual." Mme. de Lamballe was not informed of the projected flight of the royal family; she went to Aumale as soon as she had heard of it, and, in the hope of joining the Queen, she left, immediately after having embraced the Duc de Penthièvre and her sister-in-law, the Duchess of Orleans, for Boulogne, Dover, Ostend, and Aix-la-Chapelle. When she heard that the royal family had been brought back to Paris, she hesitated for a little while, and suddenly resolved to return to France. She knew well that she was going into the lion's den, for she made her will at Aix-la-Chapelle. Her friends remonstrated in vain. "The Queen desires me," she said; "I must live and die for her." She made the journey in a modest equipage, and when she saw Marie Antoinette again, she was horrified to find that, in a few months, her beautiful hair had turned almost white. When the King and Queen were imprisoned in the Temple, Mme. de Lamballe was not allowed to remain in prison with her mistress; she was sent to another prison, La Force. She was now resigned to everything. One day she was brought before a sham tribunal, and bade to swear hatred to the King, the Queen, and the monarchy. She refused. "I have nothing to answer; to die a little sooner or a little later is indifferent to me. I have made the sacrifice of my life." The President said: "Take her to the Abbaye." This word was the signal of death on that dreadful day of the September massacres. She was taken out, and as soon as she was at the door of La Force she was murdered. Her head was cut off and put on a pike; her body was dragged through the streets by a cord; and the murderers brought their trophies before the windows of the Temple, in the hope that they would be seen by the King and the Queen.

Thus ended this most unfortunate Princess. Facts are, in her case, so eloquent that nothing seems required in her biographer but accuracy and simplicity. M. George Bertin is accurate enough; his book is a compilation of citations and of notes; he has been content to place them in their chronological order, and does not seem to have been preoccupied with the desire to infuse life into his subject, to group his facts around a central figure, or to draw from them any moral lessons.

Correspondence.

THE METHODIST CONFERENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The action of the members of the Methodist Conference lately held in New York, in excluding women as lay delegates, is an instructive lesson in the way the world at times moves backwards. There were, it seems, some four quiet, inoffensive "sisters of the Church" present, while the "brethren" numbered, counting the yeas and nays cast, four hundred and twenty-two. These four "sisters" seem in no way to have presented their cause, but left the discussion entirely to the overwhelming majority of men present.

It would be well for the ministers occasionally to review the history of Methodism, and to recall the assistance they received from women in the early stages of their organization; and to remember that Methodism itself was a dissent from the government of the few and a belief in the right of all its members to have a voice in church affairs. It had from the beginning a flexible government; it did a wonderful missionary work with volunteer assistance; it laid its foundations deep and strong in the individual right of every member to preach if he wanted to, or, as it was phrased, if he "had a call." Nor can the Church ever refuse to hold the names of Susanna Wesley, Lady Huntingdon, and Barbara Heck by the side of those of John and Charles Wesley and Whitefield.

Susanna Wesley has been called the mother of Methodism. In the absence of her husband, she read, prayed, and exhorted to the many men and women who came to hear her, explaining that she would not have done so had there been a man capable of taking her place. Her example, and afterwards her sympathy with, and ready assent to, this new method, convinced John Wesley of its value, and thus was added the strong corner-stone of lay preaching.

It is very questionable if Methodism would have succeeded, notwithstanding the character of the Wesleys, had it not been for the generosity of Lady Huntingdon. She gave, it is said, $500,000 for the cause of the Church; she sold all her jewels and erected chapels for the poor; gave up her residences and liveried servants, her equipages; purchased halls, theatres, and dilapidated chapels in London. She was, indeed, "their most important centre of union, and directed the whole Calvinistic movement of Methodism." Her call was not to preach, but to work, which she did for forty years with so much spirit, sense, and generosity that her biographers conclude that it was only a question of sex that prevented her ranking as the equal of John Wesley.

It is a matter of historic interest that women have never figured very conspicuously, with some brilliant exceptions, either in state or in ecclesiastical affairs; and for any church, however new or broad, to include the sex as a factor in its body politic one hundred years ago, was an astonishing event. But this the Methodist Church did, following in this, as in everything else, the guidance of John Wesley. "I think the case rests here," he wrote to one of the women exhorters, "in your having an extraordinary call. St. Paul's ordinary rule was, 'I permit not a woman to speak in the congregation.' Yet in extraordinary cases he made a few exceptions; at Corinth, in particular. . . . The difference between us and the Quakers is manifest in this respect: they flatly deny the rule itself, although it stands clear in the Bible; we allow the rule, only we believe it admits of some exceptions."

Every one will remember, to illustrate further, the character of Dinah in 'Adam Bede.' In the conversation between her and Mr. Irwine, he continues:

"'Your Society sanctions women's preaching, then?'
"It doesn't forbid them, sir, when they've a clear call to the work, and when their ministry is owned by the conversion of sinners and the strengthening of God's people.'"

But afterwards, when Adam is telling Dinah of his meeting with Arthur Donnithorne, he adds:

"'Ay, and we talked a deal about thee. "I shall turn Methodist some day," he said, "when she preaches out of doors, and go to hear her." And I said: "Nay, sir, you can't do that, for Conference has forbid the women preaching, and she's given it all up, all but talking to the people a bit in their houses."'"

Notwithstanding this limitation, however, the Church has developed strong women as well as strong men within its folds. To limit women to still narrower work may be to deprive it, no matter what Conference may think, of a spiritual power hard to replace. If women would regard this as a species of taxation without representation, and *resent* it, and retire from the membership of every church that permits nothing but membership and work, we prophesy that not a year would

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roll around before every office and dignity within its borders would be open alike to women as to men. E. B.

KEOKUK, IA., May 19, 1888.

THE POWER OF THE PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The London *Economist* has an article upon the "American Presidency," of which the substance is in the following sentences:

"The gradual advance in the position of the President to immense power and responsibility has in part escaped the attention of Europe. Every country, even Germany, is now affected by the diplomacy of the United States, and that diplomacy is now in the main guided by the decisions of the President. Nor is his power really less within his own country. Scarcely any man not an autocrat has such direct personal power over his fellow-citizens' fortunes, or can use it with such little responsibility except to his own conscience."

As this seems to be the general idea in Europe, and as its correctness has much to do with judging as to the working of our Government, it is important to consider how far it is well founded. Certainly that was not Gen. Sherman's view when he declined to be a candidate for the Presidency, on the ground that that official has no power, but that "it is Congress which runs this Government." The *Economist* says that the Fisheries Treaty is approved by the President, by the Secretary of State, and the majority of prominent politicians, but that the Senate will postpone the decision till after the election. That seems a very queer illustration of the President's power. It says that the decision of the furious contest over the tariff will be postponed in the same way, as will every measure which greatly interests the people; and "so, we are told, will many large business arrangements, the fate of many railway schemes, of all protected factories, and of much financial business, really hang on the result of the election." Yes, and they will be postponed till the election of 1892, and again to that of 1896. These things show, no doubt, that Congress subordinates everything to party supremacy in the elections, but they do not at all show the power of this or the next President to get any of these questions settled.

"The message on the reduction of the tariff did more for free trade than any single speech from any premier would have done." Did it? That message was most creditable to the President, called forth a wide public response, and tended to identify the Democratic party with tariff reform, and the Republicans with protection, but whether it really affected the details of tariff reform or the action of the committees in the houses, remains to be seen. To those who know the connection of Sir Robert Peel and Mr. Gladstone with the British tariff, such a remark seems astonishing, though the words "single speech" may sufficiently restrict its meaning.

"Even his *obiter dicta* in answer to addresses, remonstrances, or the like, often powerfully affect opinion, and may, on occasion, completely arrest or materially forward enterprises of grave importance." No doubt such utterances raise an immense clatter in the newspapers, and may affect the personal standing of the President with the country, but their weight in the silent and secret deliberations of the committees, or in the action of the houses, is by no means to be measured by the same standard.

Upon our diplomacy depends "a serious question as to Samoa with Germany, the whole question of immigration with the Government of Pekin, the vital question of consular rights with the Sultan of Morocco, and it may next week have to decide whether it shall or shall not produce much financial ruin in Paris, and perhaps help to shake the republic, by its dealing with M. de Lesseps and the Panama Canal." If we consider that by the Constitution the Senate has the entire power of declaring war, and of raising and supporting an army and a navy, and that a two-thirds vote of that body is required before any treaty can be made, the imputation of such importance to the President must excite a smile. A man of the character of Jackson might, indeed, embroil the country in such a way as to render retreat impossible, but with the present promptness of outcry on the part of the press, and the jealousy of Congress in enforcing its control, there is but little danger until the disposition of the country and of Congress is very different from what it is at present. The exposure to Congressional snubbing, not to say impeachment, will be quite sufficient *in terrorem* to any man likely to be elected.

The one great power which the President does possess, and which is the foundation of the European idea as to his position, is that of appointments to and removals from office. But experience has abundantly shown that he does, and must, use that power in complete subservience to his party supporters in Congress. Here, again, he is held to the strictest responsibility to members of Congress, but to little or none as regards the country. So far as civil-service reform has been successful, it tends to deprive the President of the one power which he really has. G. B.

A POLITICAL QUARANTINE.

The steamship *Gaelic* sailed from Yokohama on the 24th of March and reached San Francisco on the 14th of April; there was no sickness of any kind among either crew, saloon passengers, or steerage passengers on the whole voyage. On arriving at San Francisco the saloon passengers were transferred to the steamer *Eastern Oregon* and held there in quarantine.

The steamship *Parthia* sailed from Yokohama three days after the *Gaelic*, came via Vancouver, reaching San Francisco on April 15th; her passengers were also placed in quarantine on the bark *Alden Besse*, although there had been no sickness on her.

The steamship *City of New York* sailed from Yokohama on April 4th, arrived at San Francisco April 22d, having had perfect health on the entire voyage, and her passengers were placed in quarantine.

While the passengers of these three ships were lying in quarantine in San Francisco Harbor, the steamship *Acapulco* arrived in San Francisco, having had smallpox on the voyage, and having put off several cases at a Mexican port. Her saloon passengers were allowed to land; the passengers of the three healthy ships being kept in quarantine.

Immediately on landing, the saloon passengers of the *Gaelic* held an indignation meeting, at which the following resolutions were passed: . . .

Resolved, That the action of the Mayor and Board of Health of the city of San Francisco in thus detaining the saloon passengers of a healthy ship is an outrageous abuse of power, which in no way protects the health of that city, and is apparently liable to be repeated at any time without notice.

Resolved, That we advise all passengers coming from Asia to avoid the port of San Francisco, and in the event of their being obliged to come there, we advise them to be careful about leaving the steamer on which they arrive until they are permitted to land. . . .

SAN FRANCISCO, April 28, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you do the country the favor to give room to the above in your paper? I am sure it is the duty of all to condemn such tyranny as is practised in San Francisco. It is a disgrace to America that such a thing is possible within our borders. Americans can see in it a mere political measure, and from it form their opinion of that section of our country, and the injustice of its course, when it resorts to such means in order to convince the country at large that Chinese immigration is attended with much inconvenience and danger. So far as sensible men in our own country are concerned, I am sure this is true, and the effect is to destroy all sympathy with our countrymen of the Pacific Slope in their crusade against Chinese immigration. But the damage is widespread and real, so far as foreign travellers are concerned. They go home with a contempt for a country where they may fall victims to a *political* and not a *sanitary* quarantine.

There can be no more doubt that this is a political quarantine than was the pretended one in N. Australia, which was admitted on all hands to be aimed solely at Chinese immigration. In fact, the Board of Health, in turning loose the *Acapulco*, which, according to their own showing, had been without smallpox over half a month less time than was the *Gaelic*, gave as a reason that she had not carried Chinese passengers. Is Chinese smallpox more tenacious and do its effects last longer than smallpox from other ports? But that we were not really a source of fear to the San Franciscans was further seen by the loose and inefficient nature of our quarantine. The cargo and mails were soon scattered over the country. Our soiled linen and that of the ship went ashore for washing. Our friends came alongside and we went down, shook hands with, sat beside, and (at least in the case of our ladies) *kissed* them, they returning ashore and we reentering our prison-house—prisoners with hard labor, *i. e.*, we had to work hard to keep down our angry passions under our treatment.

Again, we saw the Chinese inhumanly treated, in the way they were driven like dumb brutes into their crowded quarters, and we *heard* that those on the old hulk *Shenandoah* had already been there seventy days when we got there; we left them there still. It was said that new victims were sent to her, who, as they took the disease, were shipped to the pest-house, which even San Francisco papers pronounce to be a disgrace to the city. If these reports are true—and I fear they are—this hulk is kept as a sort of breeding-place for disease while present bills are pending in Congress. "A SUFFERER."

RAPIDAN, VA., May 11, 1888.

A PATENT-MEDICINE CANDIDATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We meet daily in the West people who appear sincerely to believe that Mr. Blaine is the greatest of living men—in all likelihood the greatest the world has ever known. They have what we understand you to have termed the Blaine mania. Not one of them can tell you why he is so "possessed" of the Knight. If you controvert his claim, he immediately goes into a fit, shouts, gyrates, sneers at Cleveland, and abuses the Mugwumps. He will discuss other subjects rationally, but will not endure any trifling with his malady. Is not such a state of mind, in people whose attachment does not spring from personal intimacy, induced by the same methods by which so many people who are physically ill are prepossessed in favor of nostrums? Who could have any faith in the staple drugs legitimate physicians prescribe, after reading and believing all that is advertised so abundantly in behalf of the evangelical and alliterative panaceas for all ills? Mr. Blaine has always seemed to me to be got up upon the fashion of the patent-medicine business. The compound is a secret its victims are not permitted to know. The success of the

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business is not affected by the merits or demerits of the medicine, but depends entirely upon the extent and energy of the advertising. The minute examination of his character in 1884, they say, was a spurious analysis got up by the Mugwumps. The advertising has been done more extensively and skilfully since 1884. But why have they worked with an old medicine, when the same means would have made some one now unknown as great and more available?

ANTI-NOSTRUM.

KANSAS, May 12, 1888.

FORESIGHT AND HINDSIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the abolition of slavery in Brazil, it is interesting to note the following passage from a speech of Lord Macaulay, delivered in 1845:

"Fully admitting, therefore, as I do, that Brazilian slavery is a horrible evil, I yet must say that if I were called upon to declare whether I think the chances of the African race on the whole better in Brazil or in the United States, I should at once answer that they are better in Brazil. I think it not improbable that in eighty or a hundred years the black population of Brazil may be free and happy. I see no reasonable prospect of such a change in the United States."

Even the greatest of historians may not write history in advance without incurring some danger to his fame for philosophical acumen.

W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, O., May 19, 1888.

Notes.

A NEW book of short stories by Miss S. O. Jewett, 'The King of Folly Island, and Other People,' is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. publish directly Tolstoi's 'Power and Liberty,' a sequel to 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign.'

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation a translation of Rosenbusch's 'Microscopical Physiography of Minerals and Rocks,' by Joseph P. Iddings of the U. S. Geological Survey. The first volume is devoted to minerals.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Christianity in Daily Conduct.'

Ticknor & Co. issue this week 'Along the Shore,' verse, by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop, and 'Olivia Delaplaine,' by Edgar Fawcett.

Mr. W. J. Linton is seeing through the press in London his 'Masters of Wood-Engraving,' a history of the art, with examples reproduced at the original scale in photographic facsimile, the print-room of the British Museum being drawn upon for fine impressions. There will be two editions, a lesser and a greater, of 500 and 100 copies respectively, sold to subscribers only. The larger will take in Dürer's "Triumphal Car of Maximilian."

Scribner & Welford will soon issue, in F. Hueffer's translation, a limited edition of the correspondence between Wagner and Liszt, of which our readers have already had a taste; also, 'Tropical Africa,' by Prof. Drummond, a book of recent travel. Chas. Scribner's Sons have postponed till the fall the publication of the second volume of Thomas Stevenson's 'Around the World on a Bicycle.' Nearer issues are a 'Manual of Christian Evidences,' by Prof. Geo. P. Fisher; 'The Five Talents of Women,' by the author of 'How to be Happy, Though Married'; and, 'The Residuary Legatee,' by "J. S. of Dale."

J. W. Bouton, 706 Broadway, sends us the illustrated catalogue of the Salon of 1888, containing 4,764 entries, in which it is noticeable that sculpture makes a nearly equal division with painting. Perhaps no other statement could so forcibly contrast the state of art in France and in the United States. In our exhibitions the statuary oftenest serves as a mere adornment of the picture galleries. The designs of the year in the Salon appear, from the memoranda here given with varying degrees of elaborateness and fidelity, to be about on the usual level.

Dr. Philip Schaff contributes to the series of the American Historical Association a paper entitled "Church and State in the United States." The circumstances attending the adoption of the constitutional provisions forbidding religious tests as a qualification for office, and prohibiting any establishment of religion, are narrated in detail, and some light is thrown upon the perplexing question how, in spite of these provisions, Christianity can be recognized as the lawful religion of the land. The line has to be somewhat arbitrarily drawn between preaching and practice in order to avoid the sweeping guarantee of the "free exercise" of religion. The more valuable portion of the paper, however, is not covered by the title, being an account of the existing religious laws of the several European states. There is an appendix containing the opinions in the leading cases in our courts which have involved the definition of religious liberty and the status of Christianity. The paper makes the fourth number of the second volume of the publications of this useful society.

Mr. George Faber Clark's 'History of the Temperance Reform in Massachusetts, 1813–1883,' is an unpretentious work executed in an orderly manner, and fills a gap. Something like this should have formed a chapter of the ill-digested 'One Hundred Years of Temperance,' published in 1886. Massachusetts was well in the front of the temperance movement, with the first State society, the first newspaper devoted wholly to the subject, and probably the first legislative committee appointed to consider the repression of intemperance. In Boston, too, was founded the American Temperance Society. Many other organizations, if not instituted in the State, were adopted, and one cannot resist the conviction that there were far too many of them. Of the majority the tale is one of decline and cessation at a date more or less ascertainable. Divisions rent not a few, particularly on the color-line. There is a chapter on rum-riots, and one on "Deacon Giles's Distillery," with others on presentations and welcomes, on conventions, on temperance newspapers, etc.; and there are a few portraits. The publishers are Clarke & Carruth, Boston.

The second number of American *Notes and Queries* (Philadelphia: William S. Walsh) is an improvement upon the first in external appearance, yet remains a very unattractive example of typography. This has too frequently to be remarked in the launching of such enterprises, though the difference between success and nonsuccess may lie in the attention paid to so fundamental a matter.

Much superior in this respect is the *Bibliographer and Reference List* (Buffalo: Moulton, Wenborne & Co.), of which the first number has appeared. This issue is wholly devoted to the History of English and American Literature. Each title of a work cited is followed by a descriptive note. The "Reference List" embraces magazine articles, etc., and works out of print, though we fail to see why the latter should not have been entered in their regular places. Among these is Brewer's 'Reader's Handbook of Allusions, etc.'; but we miss Wheeler's 'Handbook of Allusions,' E. Edwards's 'Words, Facts, and Phrases,' and Percy Smith's 'Glossary of Terms and Phrases'—all kindred works. For slight errors we will point out "Spoffard" under No. 26, and "Adonias" under No. 70. But on the whole, both as regards fulness, accuracy, and judgment, this enterprise seems to make a good start. The next number will give a list of works on the history and science of elocution and oratory.

Mr. William Blades closes in the *Bookworm* for May his papers on the invention of the art of printing, and sums up with a present disposition to believe Holland the birthplace, while the very existence of Coster is questionable, and Gutenberg's claim as the first master of an art perhaps not his own by discovery is unshaken.

As we have had several inquiries for Mr. Lowell's recent address in this city before the Reform Club, we will mention the reprinting of it (in very small type, to be sure) in the Baltimore *Civil-Service Reformer* for May.

The March Bulletin of the New York State Museum of Natural History, just published, has a report on the "Building Stone in the State of New York," by John C. Smock.

The Rev. W. C. Winslow, 525 Beacon Street, Boston, asks for new and renewed subscriptions to the Egypt Exploration Fund, of which he is the Honorary Treasurer for America. It is desired both to promote the excavations in progress, and to provide for the publication of the next memoir, relating to Bubastis.

The general series of "Old South Leaflets," now put forth by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, deserves to find a place in every school-house library. The United States Constitution, Articles of Confederation, Declaration of Independence, Ordinance of 1787, Washington's Farewell Address and Inaugurals, Magna Charta, Franklin's Plan of Union (1754), Nos. 1 and 2 of the 'Federalist'—such are some of the contents of the dozen politico-historical tracts thus far in view. They are sold at five cents each, or one hundred for three dollars. Their use as adjuncts to the Reader should not be overlooked.

An exhibition of some of Victor Hugo's manuscripts of his writings, together with drawings, original designs, and wood-carvings, also by his own hand, was opened in Paris on May 5 for the benefit of the fund for the statue of the poet. Among the manuscripts is that of 'Les Travailleurs de la mer,' with illustrations by the author himself. Mention is also made of a fireplace and chimney with panels carved and painted by him, as are also various articles of furniture and adornment. It is said that the complete collection of his illustrations for his own works and all his other drawings will be shown. A few of these have been engraved and published, from time to time, and among them Americans may remember the extremely Hugoish one of John Brown's gibbet, so widely reproduced after the execution.

The vacancy in the French Academy caused by the death of Eugène Labiche in January last has been filled by the election of another dramatic writer, M. Henri Meilhac, so well known as the joint author, with M. Ludovic Halévy, already a member of the Academy, of the librettos to Offenbach's "Belle Hélène," "Grande Duchesse," and "La Périchole," and of the plays of "Frou-frou" and "Tricoche et Cacolet," to mention only a few of the best known from a long list going back as far as 1861. There were only two other candidates for the vacant seat—M. Paul Thureau-Dangin, the historian of the Monarchy of July, and M. André Theuriet, the novelist. On the first ballot the votes were quite evenly divided, but on

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the second M. Theuriet lost one vote to M. Thureau-Dangin and six others to M. Meilhac, giving him the seventeen necessary to make a majority of the thirty-three members present. Ever since the great success of his last comedy, "Décoré," produced in January, M. Meilhac's entrance into the Academy at no distant date was assured. This election, which took place at the meeting of the Academy held on April 26, increases the number of new members not yet formally received to four, leaving only one vacancy still to be filled, viz., that caused by the death of M. Désiré Nisard, a little more than a month ago.

M. Édouard Rouveyre, the Parisian publisher, has at last issued the third, and perhaps the richest, of his three illustrated volumes on book-binding—'Les Reliures d'Art à la Bibliothèque Nationale' (New York: F. W. Christern). As in the earlier works of MM. Octave Uzanne and L. Derôme, the plates and the letter-press have little or nothing to do with each other. In the present volume the text is from the learned and lively pen of M. Henri Bouchot, author of the pleasant little treatise recently turned into English as 'The Printed Book.' M. Bouchot in fifty pages sketches the origin and development of the fine art of book-binding in France, devoting the second and longer part of his paper to a characterization of the noble sequence of book-lovers of whom France has reason to be proud from Grolier's time to the dark days of 1793, when the 'Dance of Death' came to be the most fitting book. Then by themselves we have eighty plates in some variety of photogravure, by Aron Frères. These are all chosen from the picked books of the National Library. They are arranged in strict chronological sequence, and serve to give a lover of bindings an excellent bird's-eye view, as it were, of the rise of book-binding in France, from its rude and Teutonic beginnings, through its Italian splendor with Grolier and Mazarin, to its showy emptiness under Louis XVI. A few final pages of text contain the descriptions of the original volumes.

The fourth number of the "Petite Bibliothèque Française," published by the Librairie des Bibliophiles (Paris: Jouaust & Sigaux; New York: Duprat & Co.), has recently appeared. This little collection now contains 'Le Paysan,' by Jean Sigaux; 'Mademoiselle Abeille,' by Ferdinand Fabre; 'Une Dot,' by Ernest Legouvé; 'Dans l'Argonne,' by Jules de Glouvet. In point of mechanical execution this is the most beautiful of the various fifty-centime collections now in course of publication.

Among the latest publications of Hachette & Cie. is a collection of papers by the late Academician and philosopher, Caro, in two volumes, called 'Mélanges et Portraits.' Also, another of the little volumes of the "Histoire de France racontée par les contemporains," which M. B. Zeller edits with such practical and scholarly ability, called 'Henri IV. et Biron.' The preceding one, published about a month ago, was 'Henri IV. et Sully' (Boston: Schoenhof).

The third and final volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt' was published by Charpentier about the end of April.

The number of the *Gazette Anecdotique* for April 15 (Paris: Librairie des Bibliophiles; New York: Duprat & Co.) is full of interesting things: reminiscences of M. Felix Pyat and Eugene Sue; of Jules Sandeau and George Sand; of M. Charles Floquet as war reporter of the *Siècle* with Garibaldi in Italy in 1866; unpublished lines, said to be by Victor Hugo, and an extremely clever little poem dated "Guernesey, 188.," of which it is implied that Hugo is also the author. It is called "Petite Tristesse d'Olympio, poème inrime," and each of its lines, in a very lively measure, ends with one of the words that have no rhyme in French, with an unexpected and burlesquely Hugo-ish solemnity which produces an indescribably comic effect.

As the first of a series of "Monuments de la Géographie des Bibliothèques de Belgique," the Institut National de Géographie of Brussels publishes a reproduction of four maps, constituting a representation of the countries of Europe. They were found in a manuscript edition of Jacobus Angelus's Latin edition of Ptolemy, bearing the date of 1485, preserved in the Royal Library at Brussels. This manuscript contains also the twenty-seven Ptolemaic maps. Charles Ruelens, the editor, thinks the four modern ones are copies of a prototype of those made by Nicolaus Donis or (as sometimes called) Nicolas Hahn, for the edition of Angelus's Ptolemy of 1482, which he revised.

In the Introduction to his 'Histoire des Œuvres de Théophile Gautier,' Charles de Lovenjoul takes occasion to rebuke a recent American writer for alleged neglect to acknowledge duly material taken from a previous work of the French author. He says, "Avant de terminer, nous sera-t-il permis d'exprimer le vœu que M. Edgar Evertson Saltus n'use point de ce livre comme il l'a fait de notre Histoire des Œuvres de H. de Balzac, dont il a tiré la plus grande partie d'un volume intitulé *Balzac*, publié en anglais, à Boston, et sous son seul nom, sans aucune indication de la source à laquelle il avait emprunté presque tous ses renseignements bibliographiques?"

—The increased importance of the literary life as a career in this century is admirably illustrated by an excellent paper in the June *Atlantic*, in which the Parisian variety of it is broadly treated. The two great changes are that literature as a pursuit has become commercial and journalistic, and the consequences are far-reaching. In France, men of letters have filled a place in public and social life much greater than in other countries, and the prospects which literary success opened to young men of ambition and talent in Paris have been an object of envy, especially in the middle of the century, when Villemain said, in a passage here quoted: "Literature is a career which leads to everything, but often on the condition that a man abandons it; it is a pathway rather than a goal." At present it leads to fortune, and one need not abandon it if he wishes only for money. The difference between the time when Victor Hugo sold only two or three thousand copies of a book and De Musset only seven or eight hundred, and these days of great editions with corresponding profits, is one that has profound results both in the character of the popular works and of the men who produce them. The literary profession as a body is to be congratulated for its material prosperity, but it is more doubtful whether literature itself has profited. The literary art remains, and men of talent and taste practise it; they even look down upon and ignore the writers of books which have no merit except that of financial success; but literature does not remain unaffected by the mass of reading-matter which is without art, and by the gauge of pecuniary reward. Success, particularly the gross and palpable success of large royalties, must always attract imitation, and in the crowd of young men of active and versatile talents, but undetermined aims and unconfirmed tastes, it must happen the great proportion will go with the tide. It will hardly be maintained that the present literature of France, developed concurrently with financial and journalistic success, is a great one, or will hold any high rank in history; nor is there any better promise for the future discernible. This interesting paper gives many details, and throws light upon the course of the movement which has made the literary career a money-making one; and what is true of France is also more or less true of other countries. No other article in this number is of special interest, except Mr. Parkman's graphic narrative of the fortunes of the family of La Vérendrye, some members of which were the first white men to see the northern chains of the Rocky Mountains. Their story has been recovered from documents now being printed, of which we have here a foretaste. The poetry is the least excellent of the year, Miss Thomas's verses being hopelessly Emersonian; but we shall hope for less of this poetic ventriloquism.

—No. 30 of the Harvard University Library Bibliographical Contributions is a facsimile of Shelley's "Skylark" from a MS. volume in the College Library. Its interest consists in its fixing beyond doubt the reading "unbodied joy" for *em*bodied joy, and in the few corrections made by Shelley, all of which are great improvements. It seems unlikely that this is a first draft. At the end is an editorial note that gives the contents of the volume, which is a thin quarto of poems of 1819 and 1820, some in Shelley's and others in Mrs. Shelley's script. Unfortunately, the note is not of so much use as such a description should be: one cannot identify the poems from such titles as *Song*, *A Dream*, *England*, etc., which might mean any one of several of Shelley's poems. The first line should have been given in such cases. We are made sure, however, that stanza 17 of part iii of "The Sensitive Plant" should be erased, as in Mrs. Shelley's edition; and it is a happy erasure, the stanza being in Shelley's worst style. The date of this poem, also, is fixed as Pisa, March, 1820. The date of "An Exhortation," Pisa, April, 1820, is also valuable. Mrs. Shelley ascribes it to 1819. These dates seem to mean, however, the time of finishing the poems. Two poems, the "Sonnet to the Republic of Benevento" and "Young Parson Richards," are not known to us, at least by these titles. There is enough indicated in this defective note to make it plain that careful examination may be of considerable value to the text of Shelley on minor points. The collation of "The Indian Serenade" is especially to be desired.

—Another useful work, the result of that patient toil for which the Germans are noted, is offered to the classical world: 'Index Thucydideus, ex Bekkeri editione stereotypa, confectus a M. H. N. von Essen' (Berlin: Weidmann). The author tells us that the book owes its origin to the frequent complaints of his old teacher, F. W. Ullrich, that there was no such work to aid students of Thucydides. What Ullrich wanted, and what Von Essen has given us, is an index simply, not a lexicon, for the double reason that no one man's views as to meanings and constructions will always commend themselves to others, and because Bétant has left an excellent lexicon to Thucydides. The Index does for the historian what Frohwein does for the Homeric verb: it undertakes to give every passage in which a word is found, and gives the exact form of inflected words, and not only so, but we have separate groups of references for ἐπί, ἐπὶ, ἐπ', and ἐφ'; for τε, τέ, τ', and θ'; for βούλονται and βουλονταί. What surprises us is that a classification so minute as to the form under which a word presents

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itself should totally ignore any distinctions of construction. Under εἰ, for instance, it could not have involved much additional toil to tabulate the references according to mood and tense. So of ἄν. So, too, we have nothing to show the case by which a preposition is accompanied. As Bekker's edition is the basis of the Index, we have no hint that in three places (4, 46, 3; 6, 13, 1; 6, 18, 6) ἄν is the undoubted reading of the MSS., and has been changed to ἐάν by the editors. (Stahl ἐάν, Classen ἄν in these passages. In his *Adnotatio Critica*, Stahl admits that the change has been made against MS. authority in 6, 13 and 6, 18. By what must be an accident, he omits to state that in 4, 46 only one MS. has ἐάν, though he has a note on that very passage.) In his preface, Von Essen notes as *id quod imprimis dolendum*, the fact that Bétant does not handle the particles. He will the more readily excuse us, therefore, for lamenting the deficiency we have pointed out in his own book. At the same time we feel deeply grateful for what he has done, and we mark his book as indispensable to all students of Thucydides.

—A rival to Volapük is in the field. 'Dr. Esperanto's International Tongue. Preface and Complete Method, edited for Englishmen by J. St. Price' (Warsaw, 1888) is a low-priced brochure capable of affording much entertainment. The opening words of the preface are: "The reader will undoubtedly take with mistrust that opuscule in hand, supposing that I am speaking about an irrealizable utopy"; and an unprejudiced hearing is bespoken. "I will not speak here much about the considerable importance for humanity of one *international*, by every one without any condition accepted *tongue*." Translations avail but little in putting us in possession of "outlandish literature." Socrates long ago pointed out to a sceptic the immense superiority the human tongue has over the tongue of animals, in being able to utter articulate speech. Our author ascribes to it even higher honor. "And yet the tongue is the first motor of civilization; thanks only to it, if we uplifted ourselves so high over animals. The difference of the tongue is a cause of antipathy, nay hatred among folks." The different "attempts made for giving to the public an international tongue . . . amounted or to a new system of signs for a short, self-made understanding, or to a natural simplification of the grammar with a change of the words, existing in the living tongues into arbitrarily fabricated ones." The first attempts were unpractical, "and so vanished away." The second were merely "cabinet essays, which are not realizing direct benefits," and "no wonder, if they made utterly fiasco." The popularity of Volapük is recognized, but is declared to be overestimated, for "you cannot—as of course—reckon the sum of sold exemplaries as equal to the sum of adepts, who learned the tongue." Moreover, "The number of enthusiasts, after having risen to a certain quantum, will stop and the indifferent and cold world shall never agree with the idea of taking pains in order to speak with a few, and so again, this attempt, like others, will vanish away." Dr. Esperanto found three main "difficulties to get through," the second of which was: "To set the adept in direct possibility of making use of his science with people of either nationality, no matter if the new tongue is agreed by the whole world, if it has many adepts or not." "Among the projects, emitted to the public at different times, often under the loud . . . name of an 'universal tone,' no one resolved more than *one* of the above-mentioned problems, and that *only partially*." The simplicity of the new method is likely to be against it, for "the greater part of men are inclined to bestow their consideration upon a thing, the more it is enigmatical, broad, and indigestive."

—The inventor's plan for introducing his tongue is a novel one. "Not feeling satisfied with *internationality*, the tongue is aiming to *universality*." "To count upon the aid of the public, it would be the same as to build a house on a wavering, even fantastical foundament; the largest part of the public does not like to aid any one or anything, but they would have all ready at once." "The learning of the international tongue . . . remunerates completely the little pain that must be taken for it. I could hope so, my tongue will be accepted at once by a mass of people. But I wish rather to be prepared for the baddest, than to have too splendid hopes"—and this determination, we doubt not, is wise. The plan is to get 10,000,000 people "to full out" a printed slip promising to learn this tongue "when the number of promises will reach ten millions." Not to fall in line and learn it, "would be then simply stupidity." "The underwriting of that promise does not request the smallest sacrifice of work, and in case of unsuccess of the enterprise, it does not lay any obligation upon the underwritten." "For every undertaking people *can* collect underwriters, but very few people *will* underwrite." "The refusal would not be neglect, but crime." We would fain hope that this would not be regarded as "an impardonable fault," in view of the following weighty reason for not underwriting: "The refusal could only be explained by the fear of birth-, science-, or money-aristocracy of finding their names on the list beside the names of people of inferior social position." But there can be no forgiveness. "Nothing will excuse in the future before society the persons, whose names will not be found in the list of vote. . . . With 'I did not know' no one will be excused," for editors are requested to give wide circulation to the project. We commend the book to any who are in low spirits and need to be cheered up. We have only given crumbs from the feast they will find.

—The indefatigable collector of Sicilian popular literature, Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè of Palermo, has just published the eighteenth volume of his "Biblioteca delle Tradizioni popolari siciliani" (Palermo: Pedone Lauriel), containing 'Fiabe e Leggende.' The *fiabe* correspond to the German *Märchen*, the *leggende* to our religious stories of saints, etc. After Dr. Pitrè's four volumes of similar tales published in 1875, it would seem as if little was left to collect, but the present volume contains 158 new stories or important variants of those already published. Two interesting classes of stories were insufficiently represented in the older collection, legends and fables. This lack is here fully repaired, and several very good stories given. One relates that during the creation of the world the Lord called Peter to him and told him to go and see what the people were doing. He did so, and said: "Master, they are all weeping." The Lord said: "The world isn't right yet." A few days later the Lord sent Peter again to see if the world was right, and the apostle saw that all were laughing. "It isn't right yet," answered the Lord. The next time he saw some weeping and some laughing. Then the Lord said: "Now the world is right." Another story tells us that when the ass was created and named, it was constantly forgetting its name, and running back to the Lord to be told again. At last the Lord, wearied by its stupidity, gave its ears a sharp pull, and cried out: "Ass! Ass! Ass!" That is why the ass has long ears, and why we pull a person's ears to keep him from forgetting a thing. Dr. Pitrè's great undertaking will be completed by four volumes of 'Usages and Customs,' now in press, and a volume of bibliography of popular tales. The present volume, we notice, is dedicated to an American scholar, Prof. Crane.

—The scientific study of the various religious sects in Russia is of comparatively recent date. During the last reign the scope of literature was first enlarged to the necessary extent, and the prohibition directed against the exposition of all the historical epochs and the various phenomena of the life of the people was removed. Ever since that time the history and the present state of sectarianism have furnished themes for zealous study. Thus have arisen extended essays on the historical development, and the creeds of the dissenters (*raskolniki*), their results in practice, and many separate tracts on special points and peculiarities. None of these, however, offer a broad review either of the history or of the present phenomena of sectarianism. This deficiency is to be supplied by the publication of a book entitled 'Raskol-Sektantctvo' ('Sectarianism of the Dissenters'), by A. S. Pugavin, of which one volume has already appeared. This contains a bibliography of "the old belief" and its ramifications, and is the first of four large parts devoted to "materials for the study of the religious and social movement of the Russian people." The second volume is to furnish a classification and the characteristic traits of all sects and divisions of which the "old belief" proper consists, and which have sprung up on the soil of schism. The third will contain a bibliography of mystical sectarianism (the *Khlisti*—the scourgers—the *Skoptsi*, etc.), the rationalists (the *Dukhobortzi*—wrestlers with the spirit—the *Molokane*, the *Shtunditzi*, etc.); and, lastly, the fourth volume will be devoted to the classification and peculiarities of all the mystico-nationalistic sects (heretics).

—The two modes observed in inflecting the verb in the Maya languages of Southern Mexico and Guatemala have been set forth in a lucid manner by Dr. Edward Seler in his German inaugural dissertation delivered before the Faculty of the Leipzig University (1887). The verb in Maya, as in other agglutinative languages, is a mere noun, and the two methods employed in its inflection differ in this respect, that the pronoun is either prefixed or suffixed to the verbal base. Whenever it is prefixed, that pronoun is a possessive pronoun, and the base is a *nomen actionis;* but when it is suffixed, the pronoun is a personal pronoun, hence the verbal base has to be considered as a *nomen agentis* or *actoris*. Both pronominal sets vary considerably among each other, and so do the prefixed pronouns among themselves and according to the various dialects. Placed before vowels, they often sound differently from what they do when standing before consonants. When a verbal base is used transitively, a possessive pronoun is prefixed to it; when a passive signification is intended for this same base, the personal pronoun will be suffixed to it. Chiefly such bases as exist in the form of radical syllables submit to this rule; but others prefer to assume the formative suffixes *-ax*, *-ix*, or *-tah* in the dialect of Maya proper. The tense function is not expressed by real tense forms as in the Aryan languages, but by particles or combinations of such, and this is frequently observed in other languages of the Pacific Coast. The title of the book of Seler (who is now exploring Southern Mexico) is worded: 'Das Konjugationssystem der Maya-Sprachen' (Berlin: Th. Grimm).

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WASHBURNE'S RECOLLECTIONS.

Recollections of a Minister to France, 1869-1877. By E. B. Washburne, LL.D. With illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols.

THE history of Mr. Washburne's mission in Paris during the Franco-German war forms one of the most honorable and instructive chapters in American diplomacy. Rarely have such demands been made upon an American minister, and rarely have demands of this kind been met with such skill and soundness of judgment. Appointed to what in ordinary times is a somewhat ornamental position, as a recognition of long and honorable service in the exacting business of home politics, Mr. Washburne found himself suddenly plunged into the maddest sort of political vortex, around which all the forces of European statecraft were surging tumultuously. That delicate equilibrium, the maintenance of which is the chief care of Continental diplomacy, was for the moment disturbed by a shock such as comes only once or twice in a century. The post of the American Minister happened to be at the point of collision, and circumstances connected him in a peculiar and almost unprecedented manner with both parties to the conflict.

When Mr. Washburne, after his first year of service in Paris, went off to Carlsbad in July, 1870, for a summer's recreation, everything in the diplomatic horizon was serene. Two weeks later came the news of the French declaration of war, and he was again at his legation. Here he remained for the next ten months. During this time Paris, as the final battle-ground of the war, and as the centre of revolutionary movement, was the theatre of events only paralleled by the great drama of 1789-1815. The actors were changed, the order of the scenes was inverted, but the incidents were largely the same: siege, capitulation, the fall of a Napoleonic empire, revolution, mob government, terror—each followed the other, on a miniature scale, perhaps, but with more breathless rapidity. In this succession of crises, the American Minister, remaining steadily at his post, was, if not an active participant, at least much more than a mere spectator, and his delicate and exacting duties were discharged with extraordinary courage, energy, and discretion.

Mr. Washburne found upon his arrival that the North German Confederation, on the point of withdrawing its embassy from Paris, had asked him to take charge of the interests of its subjects. Similar requests soon followed from Saxony, Hesse, and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. The necessary authority was given by cable from Washington, the consent of the French Government was sought and obtained, and in less than a week after war had been declared, Mr. Washburne found himself the custodian of the German Embassy and its archives, and, what was much more serious and burdensome, the sole protector of German subjects in France. Of these there were estimated to be 50,000 in Paris alone. The news from the frontier served to inflame the bitter animosity with which they were regarded by the Parisians, and the duties of their guardian proved to be no sinecure. He was to stand between them and the mob on the one hand, and between them and the Government on the other.

The Government early found itself obliged to define its position. Notwithstanding the great importance of the question, there is no fixed principle in international law to govern the treatment of enemies found in the country on the outbreak of war. The ancient rule was, that they might be regarded as prisoners of war and their property confiscated, but the harshness of the rule has led to its gradual disuse. The usual course is to permit the enemy's subjects to reside at large in the country and to engage in their ordinary pursuits, subjecting them only to a surveillance strict enough to prevent them from giving information or assistance to their own state; while those who desire it are allowed to return home within a reasonable time, unless, of course, they belong to the enemy's army. This is the most liberal policy that a belligerent can be expected to pursue. A third course is to require the departure of all subjects of the enemy; but this rule, like the first, being harsh in its operation, is only resorted to in cases of military necessity.

In 1870 the question was therefore to a great extent an open one, and the efforts of Mr. Washburne did much to bring about a humane and enlightened settlement of it. The cause of the friendless Germans was espoused as earnestly and as skilfully as if their advocate had been one of themselves. At the beginning of the war the French Government resolved to adopt the second of the courses described. By the proclamation of July 20, German citizens were left at liberty to continue their residence in France, and were to enjoy the protection of the laws as before the war, so long as their conduct gave no cause of complaint. A question arose, however, as to the departure of those who did not wish to stay. The American Minister was at once overwhelmed with applications for permission to return to Germany, and he promptly urged the claims of the applicants upon the Foreign Office.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Duc de Gramont, refused to grant the permission to males within the age of military service, that is, under forty years. In this decision the Government doubtless exercised its strict legal right. It is admitted that a belligerent may detain subjects of the enemy who actually form a part of his armed forces. Of the 100,000 or more Germans in France, a considerable number—enough, certainly, to add materially to the fighting strength of the German Army—were within the prescribed limits. It was evident that many of these were leaving France to take part in the war. Under the laws of their country they would be required to take part as soon as they found themselves within its borders. As far as increasing the numbers which Germany would bring into the field, and the numbers which France would be compelled to fight, it made no difference whether they were already enlisted or about to be enlisted. As the Duc de Gramont clearly put it in his letter to Mr. Washburne, "No rule of international law obliges a belligerent to allow the departure from his territory of enemy's subjects, who, from the day of their return to their own country, will be enrolled in the ranks to take part in hostilities."

Mr. Washburne's rejoinder to the letter of the Foreign Office was a masterpiece of diplomatic correspondence, a model state paper. He did not deny the absolute legality of the Government's decision; on the contrary, he distinctly conceded it. But with a deferential courtesy that disarmed all criticism, and a simple dignity and grace of expression, he pleaded the alien cause which had been committed to him. The embarrassments of his anomalous position disappear in his firm but polished sentences. He could not win his case, but so strongly were the French authorities impressed by his tone and temper that, from this time on, he never failed to obtain a respectful and friendly hearing, and in all cases where it could possibly be done, his applications were granted. In this way it often fell to him to secure that which no other man in Paris could have accomplished.

As the war went on, and it became evident that the army of invasion would penetrate to the heart of the country, the Government reversed its policy, and, on the 12th of August, adopting the third course of action in place of the second, decided on the expulsion of all the Germans in Paris. In view of the probability of a siege, hardly any other action would seem to have been possible. The measure was based partly on considerations of humanity; but, humanity apart, it was fully justified by the necessities of the situation. The removal began about the middle of August and terminated on the 3d of September, at which latter date the great body of Germans had received passports and been despatched to the frontier. All this was placed in Mr. Washburne's hands. The labor it entailed was enormous. Many of the cases presented required a hurried examination—there was no time for more than this—and arrangements for transportation were to be made with the railway companies. The setting-out of the parties at the railway station was superintended by a representative of the Legation, sometimes by the Minister himself. Untiring and in most cases successful efforts were made to secure the liberation of Germans arrested or detained by the police on suspicion, and the protection of the flag was given to those threatened with lawless violence. Through Mr. Washburne's earnest representations, the order for departure was modified, relieving the process of much unnecessary hardship. By an arrangement with the Government, the Legation was allowed to take entire charge of the removal, its visa on passports even being accepted in place of that of the police authorities; and, upon its application, permits to remain in Paris were granted by the Prefect of Police. The North German Government placed 50,000 thalers at Mr. Washburne's disposal to provide the expenses of removal, and to relieve the wants of the destitute, leaving the details of expenditure to his individual discretion. The apportionment of this fund was not among the least of his burdens and responsibilities. The extent of the work done by the United States Legation may be judged by the fact that by the 3d of September it had prepared, signed, and distributed 30,000 safe-conducts to the departing Germans, and had supplied 8,000 with railway tickets to the frontier, many of whom also received small amounts of money; while of those who remained during the siege, it provided in the closing month over 2,000 with the means of daily subsistence.

The fact that the American Minister occupied a close relation to each of the contending parties, and was equally trusted by both, pointed naturally to him as the most available intermediary, and led him into a direct and exceptional connection with their negotiations. It was an odd freak of destiny by which the veteran Illinois politician thus became a medium between Bismarck and Jules Favre—between the avengers of Jena and the men of the 4th of September. It was an even stranger train of circumstances that made him later the intercessor for the Archbishop of Paris with Raoul Rigault, and the instrument of securing the release of the imprisoned nuns of Picpus. Indeed, one is rather surprised to find that in that singular international episode, the rescue of the Empress Eugénie, which was begun by the Chevalier Nigra, continued by Dr. Evans, and completed by Sir John Burgoyne, the ubiquitous Minister had no part. He was, however, the means of saving the statue of the Prince Imperial from destruction in the Tuileries—a service for which the fugitive Empress sent

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him a pretty note of thanks. The extraordinary fact throughout is, that in the successive upheavals of social and political forces that were taking place around him, Mr. Washburne should have continued, as he did, to command the unbounded confidence of all parties alike, so that each vied with the other in asking his services, and in acceding to his requests—Germans and Frenchmen, clericals and communards, Imperialists and Republicans. Pursuing calmly the even tenor of his way, his services to one side, whichever it might be, never cost him the friendship of the other. His legation was besieged alternately by multitudes of Germans whom he was passing to the frontier, and by deputations of Parisians thanking him for his prompt recognition of the Republic. Through him the protests of Count Bismarck in reference to alleged violations of the laws of war were transmitted to the Government of National Defence. During the siege he was the only man who received news from the outside world; and when Versailles and Paris became hostile French camps, the *laissez-passer* of Marshal Macmahon, and that of Rigault, both of which he held, enabled him to circulate freely in the lines of both armies.

Mr. Washburne's labors in behalf of foreign subjects did not lead him to forget the interests of his country or his countrymen. Great numbers of the latter had departed in haste, leaving their apartments, with all that they contained, to his protection. A proposition to quarter the Garde Mobile in the vacant apartments was checked by an order from Gambetta, issued at the instance of the envoy. Later, he induced Jules Favre to suspend the enforcement of a tax upon the dwellings of absentees decreed by the city of Paris. It was next proposed to use the apartments for the inhabitants of the surrounding villages who had taken refuge in Paris, then for those rendered houseless by the bombardment, and finally for the troops again. In obstructing all these attempts, Mr. Washburne's vigorous protests were successful, and the apartments were spared. He even found it necessary, notwithstanding his championship of distressed Germans, to cross swords on one or two occasions with Bismarck, and he stood his ground manfully in defence of his diplomatic rights, against the imperious Chancellor. The principal controversy arose in reference to the passage of diplomatic despatches to and from Paris, past the military lines of the besiegers. It was a serious question, involving the broad principle of the right of a neutral envoy to uninterrupted communication with his Government. At the beginning of the siege, Count Bismarck refused to allow the passage of the despatches of the diplomatic corps, except upon the condition that they should be unsealed. This impossible condition Mr. Washburne, and those of his colleagues who remained in Paris, absolutely refused to accept. Their protest was not successful in inducing Bismarck to recede from his position as to the diplomatic corps generally, but he made an exception in favor of the United States Legation, and thereafter once a week its sealed despatch bags were forwarded to and from London through the lines, under a flag of truce.

So matters remained until January, when, on the strength of certain passages in captured balloon correspondence, the German authorities formed a hasty and unwarrantable assumption that the privilege of communication had been abused in the interest of private parties. Bismarck thereupon addressed to Mr. Washburne a letter of complaint, and even went so far as to suggest that the despatch bags should be sent, not to London, but directly to Washington, and that the return bag of despatches should be sealed at Washington. To this most unjustifiable attack, Mr. Washburne immediately made a spirited reply, repelling warmly the imputation of bad faith, pointing out that most of the letters he had delivered to private persons had come from Bismarck himself, and adding:

"In this connection, permit me to observe that you will find enclosed herewith an envelope, containing certain letters addressed to persons in Paris, and which you sent to me by the last *parlementaire*. I know nothing of these persons, and I know no reason why I should deliver the letters. I therefore have the honor to return them to you."

In reference to the proposition to transfer his correspondence from London to Washington, Mr. Washburne said:

"With a knowledge of the views of my Government on this subject, and its opinion that it has a right to promptly communicate with me as its representative near the Government of France, it is impossible for me to acquiesce in the arrangement which you have done me the honor to recommend. I have concluded, therefore, to send you, by the *parlementaire* which I hope to obtain for Tuesday next, my despatch-bag addressed in the usual way to the United States despatch agent in London. If you should feel constrained to decline sending it forward without an unreasonable delay, I shall thank you to return it to me here by the first *parlementaire*. And, also, if you should feel constrained to retain my bag sent to you from London to Versailles beyond a reasonable time, I shall thank you to return it to London."

The letter produced an immediate disclaimer from Bismarck, and nothing more was heard of the proposition.

Mr. Washburne's narrative of his mission in Paris is marked by the same modesty, dignity, and justness that distinguished him in his public career. Although written somewhat stiffly, it gives a graphic picture from the standpoint of a close observer of the most striking episode in recent European history. It is disappointing only in its characterizations of the extraordinary men who figure on its pages, of whom Mr. Washburne gives rather superficial sketches, lacking in that subtlety and keenness of penetration which might be expected in one whose career had given him a sharp insight into human character. Notwithstanding this defect, the book deserves the high place which it will doubtless take among contemporary memoirs.

A DORSETSHIRE POET.

The Life of William Barnes, Poet and Philologist. By his daughter, Lucy Baxter ("Leader Scott"). Macmillan & Co. 1887.

WILLIAM BARNES, whose pleasing pastoral poems in the Dorset dialect are not unknown in this country, belongs to a most interesting class of self-made men, who, with exceptional faculties, make themselves marked persons, but yet rise little, if at all, from their original place among the people. Such a one was our Elihu Burritt, whom Barnes recalls by his special aptitude for languages; such are those workingmen of whom we hear from time to time by the report of some Ruskin who has discovered them, who have a native taste for botany or geology, or it may be poetry. They are distinguished rather in their class than among the intellectual group with which, had they been more fortunately born and placed, they would have been naturally associated. Barnes was an unusual example of the type. He met with more success, and actually rose in social station; but he had the stamp of his country origin strongly impressed on him, and he never ceased to be thoroughly a man of the people from whom he sprang. He is of interest, also, as an excellent specimen of the sort of "original" which we appropriate too exclusively to our own nation; he possessed the versatility, the knack, the tool-using faculty, and the mental curiosity that we associate with the Yankee character, and his biography has the double worth of a life active in mind and in work.

Curiously enough, we are not told in this volume when Barnes was born, but from the chapter-heading it must have been in 1801. He came of farmer stock in Dorset, but in his babyhood he had not the physical vigor and frame that ought to be the birthright of one destined to be a farm-hand. It is related that some wise old woman comforted his mother with the remark, "Never you mind what he looks like, he'll get his living by learning-books and such like." He had some schooling, and was early put at a clerk's desk in solicitors' offices, where his good penmanship saved him from holding a plough, and, as he spent his leisure in acquiring knowledge from books, he early set up a school, and throve so well that he married in 1827 and took a larger house for himself and his pupils. He had the success he deserved, and, eight years later, finally settled in Dorchester, with which place his name and labors were closely associated during his active years. He had already shown the variety of his tastes by engraving wood-blocks, not with much talent, but for publication, nevertheless, and he had written verses in the newspapers. He made himself acquainted with many languages — Welsh and Hindustanee among the rest—and had begun his philological studies. Being discontented with the text-books used in his school, he wrote an arithmetic, a geography, and a grammar for the use of his pupils, upon what he thought better principles. He became a principal founder of the Dorset Museum, and took his boys out on scientific walks as a part of their education, and also to get specimens in the newly opened railway cuttings. He was an antiquarian, too, and took a leading part in the Society which examined and speculated about British and Roman remains; and, to mention a few other of his multifarious employments, he painted doors "artistically," as well as drew in water-color, made boxes, invented a pair of swimming-shoes which would not work, turned his own chessmen on a lathe, produced a quadrant and an instrument to describe ellipses, and played the flute, violin, and piano. He had the fixed habit of bringing his notions to practical forms, and we find him regulating the binding of his books and the margin and frames of his water-colors by "harmonic proportions"; and, to give one capital instance which does as well as any to put this aspect of his character before us, he adopted the theory that Nature never makes mistakes in colors, and that her juxtapositions must be the true harmonies, acting on which, he studied mosses, leaves, and fruits, and used the tints as arranged in them in his own sketching and decoration. Thus, on purchasing two old high-backed chairs, he chose for their covering "a certain gray-green damask, with a yellow-brown binding, the tints found on the upper and under side of a beautiful lichen."

He had determined in the midst of all this on entering the church; and in 1837 put himself down on the books of St. John's College, Cambridge, as a ten years' man. At the end of that time, having meanwhile been a prolific author in the magazines and in books, he received a small cure of £13 value, three miles from his school, and held it for five years, walking out and back every Sunday. His life went on in this way with teaching and preaching, philology, antiquities, lectures in the country, a diary in all languages, and poems in dialect, which

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had always been popular in the district and slowly attracted the attention of literary men at London. But hard times came to him, his wife was dead (in his polyglot journal he wrote her name at the end of each day's entry for forty years afterwards), his school declined, and it was a matter of rejoicing when Palmerston put him on the civil list with £70 pension. At last, when his friend Colonel Damer gave him the living at Came in 1862, he found a home for his old age, and congenial employment until his death in 1886. As a rector he was much beloved, and went in and out among his people like one of them. His daughter tells of a woman saying to her, "There, miss, we do all of us love the passon, that we do; he be so *plain*. Why, bless you, I don't no more mind telling o' un all my little pains and troubles than if he was my grandmother. I don't mean any disrespec', miss;" and this story tells its own tale. He remained vigorous until near the end, and died in advanced age with the honor of the people among whom he lived and the respect of those in the larger world who knew his acquirements and talents.

But the biography was written because he was a poet. The name philologist is also upon the title-page; his philological work, however, was cumbrous, and had in it elements of crankiness. It consisted of numberless writings, some of which brought him £5 for the copyright, and some of which have never found a publisher at all. The *opera majora* in these are a 'Universal Grammar of all Languages,' an attempt at a rational formal analysis of speech which shall be true of each particular tongue or dialect; and secondly, 'Tiw,' an analytical scheme of roots and stems. He had also much at heart the reform of the English by eliminating all except Teutonic elements, and restoring to it such purity as the Welsh possesses; his practice of using in his later books only pure Teutonic words, numbers of which he was of course obliged to coin, with his habit of using figure-symbols, made them unreadable. Such are the traits of his philology. But his feeling for the plain and expressive quality, the homeliness, of country speech, to which his philological dreams were allied, is at the root of his extraordinary success as a poet in dialect. At the importunity of friends he translated some of these Dorset idyls into ordinary English speech, and the volume had little success—quite rightly, for the charm was gone. In his English verses he did not exceed commonplace. His poetic inspiration refused to flow except from the living rock of the speech of the country folk which had been familiar to his childhood. There is in all real dialect verse a certain correspondence of the feeling and the words, a fitness as inexplicable as that of a peasant's costume to his body, an adjustment of thought and burring inflections as perfect as is made in all things by use and wont; and this is the main element of their delight to the cultivated. All art reaches after harmony, but here is a harmony that seems before art, and comes to us like unbreathed-on nature. The peculiar forms are easily caught and understood, and they give the tang of life to the country manners which they are used to describe, to the simple sentiment and direct emotion which they convey.

Barnes had poetic feeling of the primitive kind, and so long as he dealt with this Dorset life that was interesting and dear to him, and used its own century-moulded vital speech, he wrote verses with a quality like the charm of a pastoral picture or the sight of the cows in the pool staring at you. These poems won him the attention of some London folk—Mrs. Norton among them, and a Mr. Tennant, whose letters to him are most pleasant in tact and temper; and after a while Patmore and Allingham became his friends, and Tennyson exchanged visits with him. It is said here that the "Northern Farmer" was written under the stimulus of this incident. Palgrave praised Barnes very highly. "This aged poet seems to me to stand second only to Tennyson in the last half century. He has a truth united always to beauty in his drawing of character and country ways—a pure love of nature, such as one sees in the best Greek or Roman writers, exalted and rendered more tender by his devout Christian spirit. I know not, also, if any of our poets have surpassed him in the number of original pictures or motives which his three precious volumes display." There is something of the over-exquisite critic in this, but it should be said that Palgrave has since explained that, in placing Barnes "second only to Tennyson," he meant to class him "with, not above," our other poets "in the foremost line of those after Tennyson." Still, his remarks indicate well enough the lines of Barnes's excellence. The Bishop praised rather the influence of his life and words in his community: "He has helped the people hereabouts to feel what they can be and do." To write verses to please Mr. Palgrave's nice taste, and to have been helpful by them to the humble people of Dorset, is to cover a wide reach of life, one thinks; it is a test of the singleness and simplicity of poetic art.

With one more striking glimpse of the old poet, we have done. He was always eccentric, it seems, in dress. The poncho, the plaid, the flowing cassock, and silver buckles served in turn, but he was especially fond of a red cap, and perhaps it was a favorite color in other articles; at least it flashes out finely in this sketch of him by Mr. Gosse in a letter to Patmore:

"Hardy and I went on Monday last to Came Rectory, where he lies bedridden. It is curious that he is dying as picturesquely as he lived. We found him in bed in his study, his face turned to the window, where the light came streaming in through flowering plants, his brown books on all sides of him save one, the wall behind him hung with old green tapestry. He had a scarlet bedgown on, a kind of soft biretta of red wool on his head, from which his long white hair escaped on to the pillow; his gray beard grown very long upon his breast; his complexion, which you recollect as richly bronzed, has become blanched by keeping indoors, and is now waxily white where it is not waxily pink; the blue eyes half shut, restless under languid lids. I wish I could paint for you the strange effect of this old, old man, lying in cardinal scarlet in his white bed, the only bright spot in the gloom of all these books."

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

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Their Majesties' Servants: Annals of the English Stage from Thomas Betterton to Edmund Kean. By Dr. Doran, F.S.A. Edited and revised by Robert W. Lowe. J. W. Bouton.

La Comédie-Française pendant les deux Sièges (1870-1871). Par Édouard Thierry. Paris: Tresse & Stock; New York: F. W. Christern.

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Adélaïde Ristori: Études et Souvenirs. Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern.

Adelaide Ristori: Studies and Memoirs. An Autobiography. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

We have waited long for a minute biography of Cooper, the foremost figure of the American stage for the quarter of a century before Forrest came to the front; but it is not to be denied that this sketch of his professional career was well worth waiting for. All those who are interested in the American theatre owe a heavy debt of gratitude to Mr. Ireland for his invaluable 'Records of the New York Stage,' which was suggested, no doubt, by Geneste's 'History of the Drama and Stage in England from 1660 to 1830,' and which easily surpassed its model in orderly arrangement and in literary charm. The chief fault that we can now find with Mr. Ireland's 'Records' is that it ceases in 1860. It is greatly to be regretted that the past twenty-seven years have not yet found a chronicler. With loving care Mr. Ireland had also written a life of Mrs. Duff for Mr. Hutton's "American Actor Series." This biography of Cooper seems to us, if not better than the sketch of Mrs. Duff, at least more needful, for Cooper was far more prominent and of more importance in our play-houses than ever was Mrs. Duff. Cooper held his own against George Frederick Cooke and Edmund Kean and Junius Brutus Booth. He was the model that the young Edwin Forrest strove to imitate. In his youth the pupil of William Godwin and the friend of Thomas Holcroft, in his old age he was welcomed in the best circles of New York. What his career was, what his character, what his powers as a performer in comedy and in tragedy, can be seen fully set forth in Mr. Ireland's pages, which are studded with letters and playbills and casts of plays. The memoir is written in simple and straightforward fashion, and it is accompanied by a full list of Cooper's parts, which serves to show the range and variety of his histrionic faculty; and by an abundant citation of contemporary criticism, exhibiting the diversity of opinion which has almost always been manifested in regard to all great actors. The book is enriched by an index and adorned with a portrait and with a facsimile of one of Cooper's letters. It is beautifully printed at the De Vinne Press.

Dr. Doran's 'Annals of the Stage' is one of the best and best-known books about the theatre. It is, perhaps, a greater favorite in America than in England. There is, for example, an American large-paper edition printed at the Riverside Press a score of years ago: and in 1880 it was issued again in this country in two volumes in the more or less complete edition of Dr. Doran's writings, enlarged by a slight memoir of the author and an introductory and a concluding chapter by Mr. R. H. Stoddard. The present edition, by so competent a hand as Mr. Lowe's, is none the less welcome. Until recently, Mr. Lowe was known in America only as the contributor of certain admirable, though brief, biographical sketches of distinguished performers to 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States'; but his 'Bibliographical Account of English Theatrical Literature' revealed his extraordinarily minute knowledge of the details of theatrical history. He is just the editor needed by so careless a writer as Dr. Doran, who had read much rather than well. Very wisely he has nowhere modified the pleasantly written text of 'Their Majesties' Servants,' contenting himself with a frequent note in which to give a more exact reference, or to correct a blunder. This is as it should be, and the result is most satisfactory. With all its obvious faults, Dr. Doran's book is the best existing history of the English stage; it is a gallery of portraits of authors and actors. That his Annals stop at the death of Edmund Kean—as Mr. Ireland's 'Records of the New York Stage' stops in 1860—is a misfortune;

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and we wish that Mr. Lowe might be tempted to add a fourth volume to the three of the present edition, in which he would continue the history for half a century, bringing before us Macready, Charles Kean, Fechter, Sothern, Helen Faucit, Mr. Boucicault, and Mr. Irving, and digressing to relate the incursions of Miss Cushman, Forrest, and Mr. Jefferson.

The present edition is sumptuously printed and illustrated. There are fifty copper-plate portraits in the three volumes, and eighty wood-engravings—the latter printed on Japanese paper and mounted on the page as head and tail-pieces. The portraits are of varying value, and the success with which they have been reproduced is also variable. One strange error of ascription deserves to be pointed out: in the third volume there is a plate which the list of illustrations declares to be "Master Betty, the Young Roscius," but which is really a portrait of Master Burke, as surrounding sketches of the performer in his chief parts plainly indicate. Master Betty, for example, did not play the fiddle; the "Master Burke" of the past is now a teacher of music at Washington.

M. Édouard Thierry was one of the best managers who ever presided over the Comédie-Française, and it was his duty to guide it through the dark days of the Prussian siege and the revolt of the Commune. During this time he kept a journal in which he jotted down the details of the affairs of the theatre and the rumors of the greater strife which came to him from outside. It is this journal which he has now published, and it is very curious reading, of interest only to those who delight in studying the workings of French character under pressure, and to those who are collecting the minor facts of French theatrical history; other readers would no doubt find it dull. The great house of Molière was carried through the storm, partly owing to M. Thierry's skilful guidance, partly owing to the devotion of M. Got, who assumed a great responsibility in taking a part of the incomparable company across the Channel to play in London. M. Got's account of this first visit of the Comédie-Française to England has already been published by M. Georges d'Heylli, and this journal of M. Thierry's now supplements it by setting forth day by day the adventures of those of the company who remained in Paris and continued to act at their own theatre.

M. Pierre Giffard is a journalist who has had a hand in one or two plays. The experience acquired in his dual capacity he has utilized in a theatrical novel. 'La Tournée du Père Thomas' has been called a new 'Roman Comique'—but M. Giffard is not the first husband of Mme. de Maintenon! His is an easy sketch (*bon enfant*, the French would call it), lacking altogether in *documents humains*, and yet truthful enough in the main. *Aller en tournée* is the French equivalent of "going on the road," as we Americans say—"touring," the English call it. As yet no American author has told the tale of a theatrical company's season "on the road," with its ups and downs, its hardships and its pleasures, its exhausting railroad journeys and its equally fatiguing "one-night stands"; but there exists an English novel covering much the same ground as M. Giffard's, and it is instructive to compare the black and bitter 'Mummer's Wife' of Mr. George Moore with the good-humored 'Tournée du Père Thomas.' It is a sorry existence at best which we see depicted in either book; and if we knew a young person of either sex bent on going on the stage, we should suggest a careful study of both stories.

Mme. Ristori's autobiography appeared in Paris in French late last fall, and an English translation has recently been issued in London. In America this translation is published as a volume of the "Famous Women Series"—a very strange proceeding, and we earnestly hope wholly unauthorized on the part of the distinguished Italian actress, a lady as well as an artist. Two actresses, Rachel and Mrs. Siddons, have already been included in the "Famous Women Series"; but they were at least the more admissible as being dead, and therefore open to "traditional" treatment. It is the *traditions* about the artists of the stage (and this holds true in large measure of artists in painting, and the plastic arts, and in music), and not their stories, that are of value. This is not only the first autobiography, but the first biography of a living woman that has been given in this series—an innovation to be regretted, and the choice is in every way absurd. Shall we have later the autobiography of Sara Bernhardt? She is more deservedly *famous* than Mme. Ristori, as well as much more given to advertisement. The seventeen preceding volumes have, with the exception of the two just spoken of, had for their subjects, rightly, women who were remarkable for force of character, and who exercised by their writings, or otherwise, an influence of longer duration than their mortal lives. For no actress can this be the case beyond an insignificant degree.

The first half of the volume, containing the narrative of Mme. Ristori's life, is inexpressibly dull; and the last half, containing the analyses of her conceptions of six of her principal characters, and her mode of acting them, is not less trivial and commonplace. It is even vastly inferior to Lady Martin's (Miss Faucit's) vapid criticisms of her own Shakspere parts. In conclusion, the book is badly written, and worse translated, and is altogether a wretchedly paltry piece of work.

Harvard Reminiscences. By Andrew P. Peabody, D.D., LL.D. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

DR. PEABODY graduated in the eminent class of 1826, and his aim in composing this little volume has been to commemorate every college officer whose name was catalogued with his while he was undergraduate, theological student, and tutor. He devotes a special chapter to life at Harvard sixty years ago, and incidentally, too, throws much light upon it. Only five years before he entered, a Hebrew oration had been a regular feature of the Commencement exercises. Examination in the Greek Testament (at a time when no Greek-English lexicon was to be had) was still obligatory. The course in mathematics lasted four years. The mere statement of these three particulars shows, in comparison with the present elective system, how far the College has swung away from its ancient ecclesiastical moorings. Dr. Kirkland was President during our author's academic education, and, with a single exception, for more than a century none but clergymen had held the office. He was succeeded by a layman, Josiah Quincy, who quickly swept away one of the obnoxious survivals of the day when "pious citizens of Boston used to send their slaves to Commencement for their religious instruction and edification," until the custom simply amounted to a riotous holiday:

"When I entered college," says Dr. Peabody, "the entire Cambridge Common, then an unenclosed dust-plain, was completely covered on Commencement-Day, and on the nights preceding and following it, with drinking-stands, dancing-booths, mountebank shows, and gaming-tables, and I have never since heard such a horrid din, tumult, and jargon, of oath, shout, scream, fiddle, quarrelling, and drunkenness, as on those two nights."

By far the largest part of the actual instruction was by lectures, and there can be no doubt that the courses then available, imperfect as the scientific part necessarily was, richly compensated the defects of the routine curriculum. A body of very remarkable men communicated not merely their learning but their personality to Dr. Peabody's college generation. Chemistry was practically neglected, but "we had courses on physics and astronomy by Prof. [John] Farrar, of whose surpassing eloquence I have already spoken; on technology by the late Dr. [Jacob] Bigelow; on anatomy by Dr. John Collins Warren; on hygiene by Dr. [James] Jackson; on law by Chief-Justice [Isaac] Parker; on French and Spanish literature by Prof. [George] Ticknor; on the canon of the New Testament by the elder Dr. [Henry] Ware." Of the regular instructors, Edward Tyrrel Channing, brother of the more celebrated divine, undoubtedly possessed the highest qualifications for his profession. His appointment, at the age of twenty-nine, to the chair of rhetoric and oratory "was perhaps the most important ever made in the interest of American literature," says Dr. Peabody; and in this opinion he does not stand alone.

The lights of the Unitarian denomination are prominent on Dr. Peabody's roll, and one more tribute is paid to the lamented Follen, who in these athletic days might well be remembered by bust, painting, or memorial window as the first to introduce gymnastics, *more Germanico*, at Harvard. Dr. Peabody does not allude to the true cause of his losing his professorship, the pro-slavery intolerance of the time, and one thinks of this omission after having read the almost unbroken series of kindly judgments and what we may call Christian certificates bestowed on the subjects of these sketches. We would quarrel with none of the characterization as unwarranted, yet in the application of all their admirable qualities to social and public life they notoriously differed on the absorbing question of slavery—Follen, for instance, ranging with Palfrey and Quincy on one side, Story, Ticknor, Everett, Felton, and Peirce together on the other. During the period of the so-called Salem régime, the political, intellectual, and social weight of Harvard College as an organized institution was distinctly given to the side which now has hardly a champion even south of Mason and Dixon's line.

Dr. Peabody's pages are enlivened with many humorous touches by way of anecdote and otherwise. Speaking of the *American Monthly Review*, founded by Sidney Willard, he says that he never saw Felton angry but once, after having passed in a contribution to the *Review*:

"He had written, and sent to the press, an article somewhat rhetorical, though by no means distastefully high-flown; and the proof came to him with 'Froth' written in the margin against the most ambitious sentence in the copy. Felton went at once to the printer to complain of the insolence of his compositors in presuming to make insulting criticisms of the work under their hands. The explanation was promptly and satisfactorily given: at precisely that point, the work was passed over to a compositor named Frothingham."

The state of literary criticism at that period is illustrated by the fact that the *Review* being conducted by Unitarians, a scathing notice of Prof. Moses Stuart's edition of Cicero's 'De Officiis' was treated as sectarian, and cost the magazine almost every Calvinistic subscriber, although written by an orthodox Yale professor. So the exposure of a charlatan in geology drew off scores of his admirers, and brought down the enterprise in ruins.

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Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast, Told in the Vernacular. By Charles C. Jones, jr., LL.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

Two pleasant surprises await the reader of this book, viz., that so many additions can still be made to the store of "Uncle Remus," and that Mr. Jones's transcription of "the vernacular" is worthy to be ranked with Mr. Harris's. This Georgia-coast dialect is nothing else than the primitive speech of Daddy Jack, but, as here rendered, it will be found, owing to its syntax, especially, much harder to understand, and especially to read aloud, than its forerunner in 'Nights with Uncle Remus.' It is a little complicated, too, by some phonetic inconsistencies, as when *for* is written in two ways in a single paragraph—"fur eat," "fuh eat" (p. 25), or again, "fur me" (p. 3) compared with "fuh mo" (p. 15). This may very well represent a divided usage, also observable in the curious locative word *duh* or *der* (in the, of the, to the, into the, etc.), *e. g.*, "Eh see de King Crab duh squat een de water *duh* bottom er de boat"; "een de closet *duh* garret"; "fuh feed ehself un eh fambly *duh* winter time"; "eh gone *der* bottom." The identical meaning of these two forms is not pointed out in the glossary, nor is *duh* (which is much the commoner in Mr. Jones's handling) allowed the above signification at all; "was" and "were" being the sole recognized equivalents. Apparently this sense is assigned to a very prevalent and curious use of *duh*, to form the only present participle employed in this collection. In the examples which we shall now give, however, *duh* seems rather to stand for "do" with the infinitive: "Eh couldn't ketch um *duh tief* de water"; "Wen Buh Wolf yent *duh watch* um" (wasn't watching him); "Wuh you *duh do* yuh anyhow?" "Buh Tukrey Buzzard rise wid de Crab *duh heng* on ter eh leg"; "Eh meet Buh Rabbit *duh siddown duh wait* [sitting down waiting] fuh hire somebody fuh cahr him meat ter him house," etc. Another unfamiliar term is *blan*, as: "Enty you *blan* tek water outer me spring?" (ain't you in the habit of taking). Finally, the substitution of *b* for *v* is noticeable: *mobe* (move), *bex* (vex, vexed).

When we come to the substance of the fables, we find no inconsiderable number which are mere variants of Uncle Remus. Such are the widespread myth of the race between deer and tortoise, the ever-delightful Tar Baby, Buh Wolf ridden in triumph by Buh Rabbit, the stories of "Buh Rabbit, Buh Fox, an de Fisherman," of "Buh Rabbit, Buh Wolf, de Dog, an de Goose" and the parallel "Buh Rabbit, Buh Wolf, an de holler tree," of "Buh Alligatuh, Buh Rabbit, an Buh Wolf" (Daddy Jack's inimitable "Brother 'Possum gets in trouble"), etc. Mr. Jones undertakes no framing of his fables—no machinery of the cabin and its inmates—so that, dialect apart, there is a direct comparison between his mode of narration and Mr. Harris's, whose greater art is well exhibited in the common tale of the 'coon and the 'possum. On the other hand, Mr. Jones's appended morals are very pithy and taking—as, touching saying grace at the right time, "Bes plan fuh er man fuh mek sho er eh bittle [victuals] befo eh say tenky fuh um."

Buh Rabbit remains the hero of this black folk-lore; but though his "schemy" character is again and again illustrated, not without occasional disapprobation, it cannot truly be said of him, "Ebry time you yeddy bout Buh Rabbit, you fine um duh come out head." In the division of the cowmeat, he is cheated out of his portion by Buh Pattridge, contrary to his better luck on a similar well-known occasion. And we may say here that the birds play an interesting part in this collection. The impudent Buh Sparruh, who "yent much fur wuk," rivals Buh Rabbit in laziness and untruthfulness. The parable of the fowl-hawk who, "Lord er no Lord," in a season of scarcity, "manage fuh fine all him want fuh eat," but impales himself by mistake on a stump, and so furnishes a meal to the starving but still pious buzzard, is irresistible. "'De man wuh trus in ehself,' moralized Daddy Sandy, 'guine fail; wile dem dat wait topper de Lord will hab perwision mek fur um.'" The alligator, as was to be expected, cuts a relatively conspicuous figure in these pages.

We must not close without mention of the stories distinctly derived from Europeans, like "De Debble an May Belle" (Bluebeard), "De Two Fren an de Bear" (Æsop), "Buh Lion, Buh Rabbit, Buh Fox, an Buh Roccoon" (a very noticeable version of Herodotus's story of Agamedes, the thieving architect of the treasure-house of Rhampsinitus, whose unhappy rôle is here taken by the coon), and such Orientalisms as "De King an eh Ring" and "De Ole King an de Noung King." For these, as well as for the strictly African myths, Mr. Jones and his publishers deserve the hearty thanks of the reading public.

The Chess-Player's Manual. By G. H. D. Gossip. Revised and edited and with an American appendix by S. Lipschütz. Geo. Routledge & Sons.

It may be said of books on chess as the Kentuckian said of brands of whiskey—some are better than others, but all are good. The game stands supreme among intellectual amusements: its combinations are infinite, and its fascinations imperishable. There cannot be too many books about it. From the inexhaustible field of discovery every faithful laborer can bring something of interest. In this age we have chess-writers, chess-players, chess champions, and chess clubs, and there is no danger that the noble game will die or even decay; but it is to be regretted that it has not a stronger hold at the fireside. Properly speaking, it has no rival, but there are amusements, some of them evil, which to a great extent supplant it. Of the young people of the present day probably ten know the value of a "flush" and a "full"—and know it "for stamps," as they say—where one knows the difference between a bishop and a knight.

The manual before us is an octavo volume of 882 pages, published in 1874, and now republished with an appendix of 120 pages by the champion of the Manhattan Club of New York. The original work and the appendix are valuable in themselves, and, taken together, they may be regarded as exhaustive of the subject to the present date. The large bulk of the volume is due, of course, to the heavy demand made upon space in presenting tabular statements of games necessary to explain the openings, and to show by the games actually played by the best players the changes that time has produced in attack and defence. The work is commendable not only to beginners, but to the most advanced chess students.

Homestead Highways. By Herbert Milton Sylvester. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

This volume is in the same style as the author's previous 'Prose Pastorals,' and describes scenes of New England life of the sort of which Whittier's 'Snow-Bound' is the lasting memorial. The greater part of the volume is taken up with pictures of the snow-storm on the eve of Thanksgiving, the drive to the meeting-house and the sermon by the old pastor, the farm-house dinner, and the fag-end of the day; and in a second paper the opening of the district-school, the scenes of school-boy life, and the personality of the teachers. The remaining chapters lack the directness and concentration of these two. The style is pleasant, and always touched with that reverence for the early days of country life, and loving reminiscence of them, which are traits of the New England nature; and in living the old time over in these sketches the author has depicted it with such reality and simplicity that his own past has the value of a type, and will be a welcome reminder to the lovers of this kind of literature, who are not few, of the humble annals of many country homes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, J. C. The Fatherhood of God. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
A Strange Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder. Harper & Bros.
Baumbach, R. Summer Legends. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Brisbin, Gen. J. S. Trees and Tree Planting. Harper & Bros.
Brooks, N. Abraham Lincoln: A Biography for Young People. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Christianity and Evolution; Modern Problems of the Faith. T. Whittaker. $1.50.
Cobb, S., Jr. Orion, the Goldbeater. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Daudet, A. Partners; or, Fromont, Jr., and Risler, Senior. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Eaton, A. W. The Heart of the Creed: Historical Religion in the Light of Modern Thought. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Fishwick, H. The Registers of the Parish Church of Rochdale in the County of Lancaster. 1582–1616. London: Trübner & Co.
Gleigud, A. Memoirs of Prince Adam Czartoryski and his Correspondence with Alexander I. 2 vols. With Portraits. Scribner & Welford.
Goode, G. B. American Fishes: A Popular Treatise upon the Game and Food Fishes of North America. Illustrated. Standard Book Co.
Goodwin, J. A. The Pilgrim Republic: An Historical Review of the Colony of New Plymouth, etc. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $4.
Griffiths, A. The Wrong Road. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Gröber, Prof. G. Grundriss der Romanischen Philologie. III. Lieferung. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Hadley, A. Life of Walter Harriman. With Selections from his Speeches and Writings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Hahn, Anna E. Summer Assembly Days; or, What was Seen, Heard, and Felt at the Nebraska Chautauqua. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society. $1.
Harte, B. The Argonauts of North Liberty. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hewlett, H. G. A Wayfarer's Wallet. London: George Redway.
Hill, G. A. Lessons in Geometry for the Use of Beginners. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. The Old Northwest: with a View of the Thirteen Colonies as Constituted by the Royal Charters. Townsend MacCoun. $2.50.
Hirsh's Tabulated Digest of the Divorce Laws of the United States.
Howells, W. D. The Minister's Charge. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Kennard, Mrs. Edward. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Why Should Priests Wed? A. E. Costello. $1.

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